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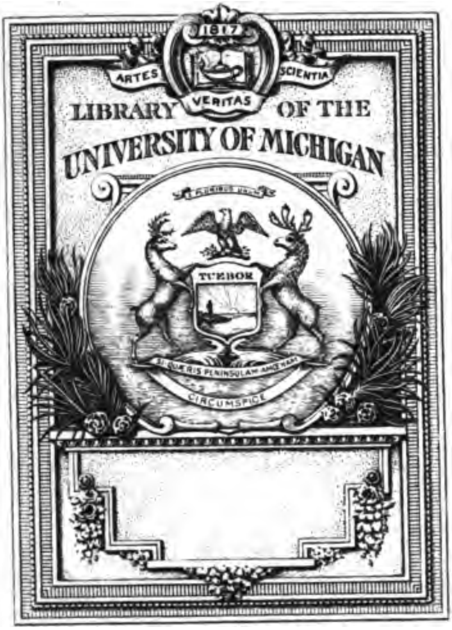

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Emerson, William

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MECHANICS;
OR, THE
DOCTRINE
OF
MOTION.

COMPREHENDING,

I. The general Laws of Motion.

II. The Descent of Bodies perpendicularly, and down inclined Planes, and alſo in Curve Surfaces. The Motion of Pendulums.

III. Centers of Gravity. The Equilibrium of Beams of Timber, and their Forces and Directions.

IV. The Mechanical Powers.

V. The comparative Strength of Timber, and its Stress. The Powers of Engines, their Motion, and Friction.

VI. Hydrostatics and Pneumatics.

RADCLIFFE
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OXFORD.

Da veniam ſcriptis, quorum non gloria nobis
cauſa, ſed utilitas officiumque, fuit.
Ovid de Ponto III.

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THE

PREFACE.

HAVING ſome years ſince written a large book of Mechanics, which is ſold by Meſſrs. Robinſon, *and* Co. *in* Pater-noſter-Row. *I have here given a ſhort abſtract of that book, as it falls properly into this courſe; and eſpecially as that branch of ſcience, is of ſuch extenſive uſe in the affairs of human life. I do not in the leaſt, deſign this to interfere with the other book, being rather an introduction to it, as it explains ſeveral things in it more at large; particularly in the firſt ſection, as being of univerſal extent and uſe; and likewiſe in ſeveral other parts of the book, eſpecially ſuch as have been objected to by ignorant writers. I have alſo added ſeveral things not mentioned in the other book, which are more ſimple and eaſy, and more proper for learners. So that this ſhort treatiſe may be looked upon as an introduction to the other book, and will doubtleſs facilitate the reading of it. As to the higher and more difficult matters, as few care to trouble their heads about them, I have ſaid little of them here, being not ſo proper for an introduction. To mention one or two things; I had taken a great deal of pains to find out the true form of a bridge, that ſhall be the ſtrongeſt, and of a ſhip that ſhall ſail the faſteſt; both upon principles that I know to be as certain and demonſtrative as the Elements of Euclid; both theſe you have in the other book. But, as we have no occaſion in* England, *for the*

the ſtrongeſt bridges, or the ſwifteſt ſhips; Mathematicians, for the future, may find ſomething elſe to do, than run into ſuch perplext and uſeleſs diſquiſitions. For indeed when any of theſe grand things are to be performed, they generally fall into the hands of ſuch people, as know little of the nature of them. They perhaps know how to lay down upon paper, the plan of a deſign, by rule and compaſs, and to do ſeveral problems in practical geometry; and not much more. As if this was an adequate qualification, for conducting ſuch magnificent works, as coſt many thouſand pounds to execute. So that theſe things, inſtead of being conſtructed by the rules of art; they are too often done by fancy, without any true rules.

But in this there is no great wonder, conſidering how few people ſtudy this art; and among theſe that do, how few are competent judges. For even among thoſe that preſume to write about it, it is ſurprizing to ſee what miſtakes they daily run into. One denies the compoſition and reſolution of forces; another cannot be ſatisfied with ſome of the mechanical powers, not even ſo ſimple a thing as the wedge; all owing to the wrong notions they have imbibed. And in conſequence of this, will be either condemning the art itſelf, or criticiſing on other writers, whom they do not underſtand.

As to what I have written on this ſubject; I have all along given the demonſtrations of the ſeveral things I have handled; and I expect that *to be my teſt, as to the truth or falſhood thereof. And by this teſt I leave them to be tried by any judicious, honeſt reader; who is a lover of truth, and a promoter of ſcience.*

W. Emerſon.

MECHA-

MECHANICS.

DEFINITIONS.

1. *MECHANICS* is a ſcience, which treats of the forces, motions, velocities, and in general, of the actions of bodies upon one another. It teaches how to move any given weight with any given power; how to contrive engines to raiſe great weights, or to perform any kind of motion.

2. *Body* is the maſs or quantity of matter; an *elaſtic body* is that which yields to a ſtroke, and recovers its figure again. But if not, 'tis called an *unelaſtic body*.

3. *Denſity* is the proportion of the quantity of matter in any body, to the quantity of matter in another body of the ſame bigneſs.

4. *Force* is a power exerted on a body to move it. If it act inſtantaneouſly, 'tis called *Percuſſion*, or *impulſe*. If conſtantly, 'tis an *accelerative force*.

5. *Velocity* is a property of motion, by which a body paſſes over a certain ſpace in a certain time. And is greater or leſſer, as it paſſes over a greater or leſſer ſpace in a certain time as ſuppoſe a ſecond.

6. *Motion* is a continual and ſucceſſive change of place. If the body moves equally, 'tis called *equable* or *uniform motion*. If it increaſes or decreaſes, 'tis called *accelerated* or *retarded motion*. When it is compared with ſome body at reſt, 'tis called *abſo-*

lute motion. But when compared with others in motion, it is called *relative motion*.

7. *Direction* of motion is the courſe or way the body tends, or the line it moves in.

8. *Quantity* of motion, is the motion a body has, conſidered both in regard to its velocity and quantity of matter. This is alſo called the *Momentum* of a body.

9. *Vis inertiæ*, is the innate force of matter, by which it reſiſts any change, ſtriving to preſerve its preſent ſtate of reſt or motion.

10. *Gravity* is that force wherewith a body endeavours to fall downwards. It is called *abſolute gravity* in empty ſpace; and *relative gravity* when immerſed in a fluid.

11. *Specific gravity*, is the greater or leſſer weight of bodies of the ſame magnitude, or the proportion between their weights. This proceeds from the natural denſity of bodies.

12. *Center of gravity*, is a certain point of a body; upon which, the body when ſuſpended, will reſt in any poſition.

13. *Center of motion*, is a fixed point about which a body moves. And the *axis of motion* is a fixed line it moves about.

14. *Power* and *weight*, when oppoſed to one another, ſignify the body that moves another, and the other which is moved. The body which begins and communicates motion is the *power*; and that which receives the motion, is the *weight*.

15. *Equilibrium* is the balance of two or more forces, ſo as to remain at reſt.

16. *Machine* or *Engine*, is any inſtrument to move bodies, made of levers, wheels, pullies, &c.

17. *Mechanic powers*, are the ballance, lever, wheel, pulley, ſcrew and wedge.

18. *Streſs* is the effect any force has to break a beam, or any other body; and *ſtrength* is the

reſiſtance it is able to make againſt any ſtraining force.

19. *Friction* is the reſiſtance which a machine ſuffers, by the parts rubbing againſt one another.

POSTULATA.

1. That a ſmall part of the ſurface of the earth may be looked upon as a plane. For tho' the earth be round; yet ſuch a ſmall part of it as we have any occaſion to conſider, does not ſenſibly differ from a plane.

2. That heavy bodies deſcend in lines parallel to one another. For tho' they all tend to a point which is the center of the earth, yet that center is at ſuch a diſtance that theſe lines differ inſenſibly from parallel lines.

3. The ſame body is of the ſame weight in all places on or near the earth's ſurface. For the difference is not ſenſible in the ſeveral places we can go to.

4. Tho' all matter is rough, and all engines imperfect; yet for the eaſe of calculation, we muſt ſuppoſe all planes perfectly even; all bodies perfectly ſmooth; and all bodies and machines to move without friction or reſiſtance; all lines ſtreight and inflexible, without weight or thickneſs; cords extremely pliable, and ſo on.

AXIOMS.

1. Every body endeavours to remain in its preſent ſtate, whether it be at reſt, or moving uniformly in a right line.

2. The alteration of motion by any external force is always proportional to that force, and in direction of the right line in which the force acts.

3. Action and re-action, between any two bodies, are equal and contrary.

4. The

4. The motion of any body is made up of the ſum of the motions of all the parts.

5. The weights of all bodies in the ſame place, are proportional to the quantities of matter they contain, without any regard to their figure.

6. The vis inertiæ of any body, is proportional to the quantity of matter.

7. Every body will deſcend to the loweſt place it can get to.

8. Whatever ſuſtains a heavy body, bears all the weight of it.

9. Two equal forces acting againſt one another in contrary directions; deſtroy one anothers effects. And unequal forces act only with the difference of them.

10. When a body is kept in equilibrio; the contrary forces in any line of direction are equal.

11. If a certain force generate any motion; an equal force acting in a contrary direction, will deſtroy as much motion in the ſame time.

12. If a body be acted on by any power in a given direction. It is all one in what point of that line of direction, the power is applied.

13. If a body is drawn by a rope, all the parts of the rope are equally ſtretched. And the force in any part acts in direction of that part. And it is the ſame thing whether the rope is drawn out at length, or goes over ſeveral pullies.

14. If ſeveral forces at one end of a lever, act againſt ſeveral forces at the other end; the lever acts and is acted on in direction of its length.

SECT. I.

The General Laws of MOTION.

PROP. I.

THE quantities of matter in all bodies, are in the compound ratio of their magnitudes and denſities.

For (Def. 3.) in bodies of the ſame magnitudes, the quantities of matter will be as the denſities. Increaſe the magnitude in any ratio, and the quantity of matter is increaſed in the ſame ratio. Conſequently the quantity of matter is in the compound ratio of the denſity and magnitude.

Cor. 1. *In two ſimilar bodies, the quantities of matter are as the denſities, and cubes of the diameters.*
For the magnitudes of bodies are as the cubes of the diameters.

Cor. 2. *The quantities of matter are as the magnitudes and ſpecific gravities.*
For (by Def. 3. and 11.) the denſities of bodies are as their ſpecific gravities.

PROP. II.

The quantities of motion in all moving bodies, are in the compound ratio of the quantities of matter and the velocities.

For if the velocities be equal, the quantities of motion will manifeſtly be as the quantities of matter. Increaſe the velocity in any ratio, and the quantity of motion will be increaſed in the ſame ratio. Therefore it follows univerſally, that the quantities of motion are in the compound ratio of the velocities and quantities of matter.

Cor. *Hence if the body be the ſame, the motion is as the velocity. And if the velocity be the ſame, the motion is as the body or quantity of matter.*

PROP. III.

In all bodies moving uniformly, the ſpaces deſcribed, are in the compound ratio of the velocities and the times of their deſcription.

For in any moving body, the greater the velocity, the greater is the ſpace deſcribed; that is, the ſpace will be as the velocity. And in twice or thrice the time, &c. the ſpace will be twice or thrice as great; that is, the ſpace will be increaſed in proportion to the time. Therefore univerſally the ſpace is in the compound ratio of the velocity, and the time of deſcription.

Cor. 1. *The time of deſcribing any ſpace, is as the ſpace directly and velocity reciprocally; or as the ſpace divided by the velocity. And if the velocity be the ſame, the time is as the ſpace. And if the ſpace be the ſame, the time is reciprocally as the velocity.*

Cor. 2. *The velocity of a moving body, is as the ſpace directly, and time reciprocally; or as the ſpace divided by the time. And if the time be the ſame, the velocity is as the ſpace deſcribed. And if the ſpace be the ſame, the velocity is reciprocally as the time of deſcription.*

PROP. IV.

The motion generated by any momentary force, or by a ſingle impulſe, is as the force that generates it.

For if any force generates any quantity of motion; double the force will produce double the motion; and treble the force, treble the motion, and ſo on. If a body ſtriking another, gives it any motion, twice that body ſtriking the ſame, with the ſame velocity, will give it twice the motion, and ſo the motion generated in the other will be as the force of percuſſion.

Cor. 1. *Hence the forces are in the compound ratio of the velocities and quantities of matter.*

For (Prop. II.) the motions are as the quantities of matter multiplied by the velocities.

Cor. 2. *The velocity generated, is as the force directly, and quantity of matter reciprocally. Therefore if the bodies are equal, the velocities are as the forces. And if the forces are equal, the velocities are reciprocally as the bodies.*

Cor. 3. *The quantity of matter, is as the force directly, and velocity reciprocally. And therefore if the velocities be equal, the bodies are as the forces. And if the forces be equal, the bodies are reciprocally as the velocities.*

PROP. V.

The quantity of motion generated, by a conſtant and uniform force, is in the compound ratio of the force and time of acting.

For the motion generated in any given time will be proportional to the force that generates it;

and in twice that time, the motion will be double by the ſame force; and in thrice that time it will be treble; and ſo every part of time adds a new quantity of motion equal to the firſt; and therefore the whole motion, will be as the force, and the whole time of acting.

Cor. 1. *The motion loſt in any time, is in the compound ratio of the force and time.*

Cor. 2. *The velocity generated (or deſtroyed) in any time, is as the force and time directly, and quantity of matter reciprocally. The ſame is true of the increaſe or decreaſe of velocity.*

For the motion, that is (Prop. II.) the body multiplied by the velocity, is as the force and time. And therefore the velocity is as the force and time directly, and the body reciprocally.

Cor. 3. *Hence if the force be as the quantity of matter, the velocity is as the time. Or if the force and quantity of matter be given, the velocity is as the time.*

And if the time and quantity of matter be given, the velocity is as the force.

And if the force and time be given, the velocity is reciprocally as the matter.

Cor. 4. *The time is as the quantity of matter and velocity directly, and the force reciprocally. Therefore,*

If the force and velocity be given, the time is as the quantity of matter.

If the quantity of matter and velocity be given, the time is reciprocally as the force.

Cor. 5. *The force is as the quantity of matter and velocity directly, and the time reciprocally. Whence,*

If the velocity is at the time, or if the velocity and time be given, then the force is as the quantity of matter.

And if the velocity and quantity of matter be given, the force is reciprocally as the time.

Cor. 6. *The quantity of matter is as the force and time directly, and the velocity reciprocally. Therefore, if the force and time be given, the quantity of matter is reciprocally as the velocity.*

Cor. 7. *Hence alſo if the body be given, the velocity is in the compound ratio of the force and time.*

And if the force be given, the time is in the compound ratio of the matter and velocity, or as the quantity of motion.

PROP. VI.

If a given body is urged by a conſtant and uniform force; the ſpace deſcribed by the body from the beginning of the motion, will be as the force and ſquare of the time.

Suppoſe the time divided into an infinite number of equal parts or moments. Then in each of theſe moments of time, the ſpace deſcribed (Prop. III. Cor. 2.) will be as the velocity gained; that is, (by Cor. 7. Prop. V.) as the force and time from the beginning. And the ſum of all the ſpaces, or the whole ſpace deſcribed, will be as the force and the ſum of all the moments of time from the beginning. Therefore put t = the whole time, and the whole ſpace deſcribed will be as the force and ſum of the times 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. to t. But the ſum of the arithmetic progreſſion $1 + 2 + 3 + 4 \ldots$ to $t = \frac{t+1}{2} \times t = \frac{1}{2} tt$, becauſe t is infinite or conſiſts of an infinite number of moments. Therefore the whole ſpace deſcribed will be as the force and $\frac{1}{2} tt$; that is, (becauſe $\frac{1}{2}$ is a given quantity), as the force and the ſquare of the time of deſcription.

Cor. 1. *If a body is impelled by a conſtant and uniform force; the ſpace deſcribed from the beginning of the motion, is as the velocity gained, and the time of moving.*

For the ſpace is as the force and ſquare of the time, or as the force × time × time. But (Cor. 7. Prop. V.) the force × time is as the velocity; therefore the ſpace which is as the force × time × time, is as the velocity × time.

Cor. 2. *If a body urged by any conſtant and uniform force, deſcribes any ſpace; it will deſcribe twice that ſpace in the ſame time, by the velocity acquired.*

For the ſum of all the ſpaces deſcribed by that force, 1 + 2 + 3 &c. to t, was ſhewn to be $\frac{1}{2}tt$. But the ſum of all the ſpaces deſcribed by the laſt velocity, will be $t + t + t$ &c. to t terms, whoſe ſum is tt. But tt is double to $\frac{1}{2}tt$; that is, the ſpace deſcribed by the laſt velocity, is double the ſpace deſcribed by the accelerating force.

Cor. 3. *Univerſally in all bodies urged by any conſtant and uniform forces; the ſpace deſcribed is as the force and ſquare of the time directly, and the quantity of matter reciprocally.*

For (Cor. 1.) the ſpace is as the time and velocity. But (Prop. V. Cor. 2.) the velocity is univerſally as the force and time directly, and quantity of matter reciprocally. Therefore the ſpace is as the ſquare of the time and the force directly, and matter reciprocally; whence,

Cor. 4. *The product of the force, and ſquare of the time, is as the product of the body and ſpace deſcribed.*

Cor. 5. *The product of the force and time, is as the product of the quantity of matter and velocity.*

For (Prop. V.) the product of the force and

time, is as the motion; that is, as the body and Fig.
velocity.

Cor. 6. *The product of the body, and ſquare of the velocity, is as the product of the force and the ſpace deſcribed.*

For (Cor. 5.) the product of the body and velocity, is as the force and time. Therefore, the body × velocity ſquare, is as the force × time × velocity; but time × velocity is as the ſpace (by Prop. III.); therefore body × velocity ſquare is as the force × ſpace.

SCHOLIUM.

If any quantity or quantities are given, they muſt be left out. And ſuch quantities as are proportional to each other muſt be left out. For example, if the quantity of matter be always the ſame; then (Cor. 3.) the ſpace deſcribed is as the force and ſquare of the time. And if the matter be proportional to the force, as all bodies are in reſpect to their gravity; then (Cor. 6.) the ſpace deſcribed is as the ſquare of the velocity. Or if the ſpace deſcribed be always proportional to the body; then (Cor. 6.) the force is as the ſquare of the velocity. Again, if the body be given, then (Cor. 4.) the ſpace is as the force and ſquare of the time. And if both the quantity of matter and the force be given, the ſpace deſcribed is as the ſquare of the time. And ſo of others.

PROP. VII.

If ABCD *be a parallelogram; and if a body at* 1.
A, *be acted upon ſeparately by two forces, in the directions* AB *and* AC, *which would cauſe the body to be carried thro' the ſpaces* AB, AC *in the ſame time. Then both forces acting at once, will cauſe the body to be carried thro' the diagonal* AD *of the parallelogram.*

Let the line AC be ſuppoſed to move parallel to
itſelf;

Fig. 1. itſelf; whilſt the body at the ſame time moves from A, along the line AC or *bg*, and comes to *d* at the ſame inſtant, that AC comes to *bg*. Then ſince the lines AB, AC, are deſcribed in the ſame time; and A*b*, A*d*, are alſo deſcribed in the ſame time. Therefore, as the motions are uniform, it will be, A*b* : *bd* : : AB : BD; and therefore A*d*D is a ſtreight line, coinciding with the diagonal of the parallelogram.

Cor. 1. *The three forces in the directions* AB, AC, AD, *are reſpectively as the lines* AB, AC, AD.

Cor. 2. *Any ſingle force* AD *denoted by the diagonal of a parallelogram, is equivalent to two forces denoted by the ſides* AB, AC.

Cor. 3. *And therefore any ſingle force* AD *may be reſolved into two forces, an infinite number of ways, by drawing any two lines* AB, BD, *for their quantities and directions.*

SCHOLIUM.

This practice of finding two forces equivalent to one, or dividing one force into two; is called the *compoſition* and *reſolution* of forces.

PROP. VIII.

2. *If three forces* A, B, C, *keep one another in equilibrio; they will be proportional to three ſides of a triangle, drawn parallel to their ſeveral directions,* DI, CI, CD.

Produce AD to I, and BD to H, and compleat the parallelogram DICH; then (Prop. VII.) the force in direction DC, is equal to the forces DH, DI, in the directions DH, DI. Take away the force DC and putting the forces DH, DI equal

thereto; and the equilibrium will ſtill remain. Fig.
Therefore (Ax. 10.) DI is equal to the force A op- 2.
poſite to it; and DH or CI equal to its oppoſite force B. And as CD repreſents the force C, the three forces A, B, and C will be to one another as DI, CI, and CD.

Cor. 1. *Hence if three forces acting againſt one another, keep each other in equilibrio; theſe forces will be reſpectively as the three ſides of a triangle drawn perpendicular to their lines of direction; or making any given angle with them, on the ſame ſide.*

For this triangle will be ſimilar to a triangle whoſe ſides are parallel to the lines of direction.

Cor. 2. *If three active forces* A, B, C *keep one another in equilibrio; they will be reſpectively as the ſines of the angles, which their lines of direction paſs through.*

For A, B, C are as DI, CI, CD; that is, as S.DCI, S.CDI, and S.DIC. But S.DCI = S.CDH = S.CDB. And S.CDI = S.CDA. Alſo S.DIC = S.BDI = S.BDA.

Cor. 3. *If ever ſo many forces acting againſt one another, are kept in equilibrio, by theſe actions; they may be all reduced to two equal and oppoſite ones.*

For any two forces may, by compoſition, be reduced to one force acting in the ſame plane. And this laſt force, and any other, may likewiſe be reduced to one force acting in the plane of theſe; and ſo on, till they all be reduced at laſt to the action of two equal and oppoſite ones.

PROP. IX.

If a body impinges or acts againſt any plain ſurface; it exerts its force in a line perpendicular to that ſurface. 3.

Let the body A moving in direction AB, with a given velocity, impinge on the ſmooth plain FG at

the

Fig. 3. the point B. Draw AC parallel, and BC perpendicular to FG; and let AB repreſent the force of the moving body. The force AB is, by the reſolution of forces, equivalent to AC and CB. The force AC is parallel to the plain, and therefore has no effect upon it; and therefore the ſurface FG is only acted upon by the force CB, in a direction perpendicular to the ſurface FG.

Cor. 1. *If a body impinges upon another body with a given velocity; the quantity of the ſtroke is as the ſine of the angle of incidence.*

For the abſolute force is AB, and the force acting on the ſurface FG is CB. But AB : CB :: rad : S.CAB or ABF.

Cor. 2. *If an elaſtic body* A *impinges upon a hard or elaſtic plane* FG; *the angle of reflexion will be equal to the angle of incidence.*

For if AD be parallel to FG; the motion of A in direction AD parallel to the plane, is not at all changed by the ſtroke. And by the elaſticity of one or both bodies, the body A is reflected back to AD in the ſame time it moved from A to B; let it paſs to D; then will AC = CD, being deſcribed in equal times; conſequently the angle ABC = angle CBD; and therefore the angle DBG = angle ABF.

Cor. 3. *If a non-elaſtic body ſtrikes another non-elaſtic body; it loſes but half the motion, that it would loſe, if the bodies were elaſtic.*

For non-elaſtic bodies only ſtop, without receding from one another; but elaſtic bodies recede with the ſame velocity.

PROP.

PROP. X.

The ſum of the motions of two or more bodies in any direction towards the ſame part, cannot be changed by any action of the bodies upon each other.

Here I reckon progreſſive motions affirmative; and regreſſive ones negative, and to be deducted out of the reſt to get the ſum.

1. If two bodies move the ſame way; ſince action and re-action are equal and contrary, what one body gains the other loſes; and the ſum remains the ſame as before. And the caſe is the ſame, if there were more bodies.

2. If bodies ſtrike one another obliquely; they will act on one another in a line perpendicular to the ſurface acted on. And therefore by the law of action and re-action there is no change made in that direction.

3. And in a direction parallel to the ſtriking ſurface, there is no action of the bodies, therefore the motion remains the ſame in that direction. Whence the motions will remain the ſame in any one line of direction.

Cor. 1. *Motion can neither be increaſed nor decreaſed, conſidered in any one direction; but muſt remain invariably the ſame for ever.*

This follows plainly from this Prop. for what motion is gained to one (by addition), is loſt to another body (by ſubtraction); and ſo the total ſum remains the ſame as before.

SCHOLIUM.

This Prop. does not include or meddle with ſuch motions as are eſtimated in all directions. For upon this ſuppoſition, motion may be increaſed or decreaſed

Fig. decreaſed an infinite number of ways. For example, if two equal and non-elaſtic bodies, with equal velocities, meet one another; both their motions are deſtroyed by the ſtroke. Here at the beginning of the motion, they had both of them a certain quantity of motion, but to be taken in contrary directions; but after the ſtroke they had none.

PROP. XI.

The motion of bodies included in a given ſpace, is the ſame, whether that ſpace ſtands ſtill; or moves uniformly in a right line.

For if a body be moving in a right line, and any force be equally impreſſed both upon the body and the line it moves in; this will make no alteration in the motion of the body along the right line. And for the ſame reaſon, the motions of any number of bodies in their ſeveral directions will ſtill remain the ſame; and their motions among themſelves will continue the ſame, whether the including ſpace is at reſt, or moves uniformly forward. And ſince the motions of the bodies among themſelves; that is, their relative motions remain the ſame, whether the ſpace including them be at reſt, or has any uniform motion. Therefore their mutual actions upon one another, muſt alſo remain the ſame in both caſes.

SECT.

SECT. II.

The perpendiculur deſcent of heavy bodies, their deſcent upon inclined Planes, and in Curve Surfaces. The Motion of Pendulums.

PROP. XII.

THE velocities of bodies, falling freely by their own weight, are as the times of their falling from reſt.

For ſince the force of gravity is the ſame in all places near the earth's ſurface (by Poſt. 3.), and this is the force by which bodies deſcend. Therefore the falling body is urged by a force which acts conſtantly and equally; and therefore (by Cor. 3. Prop. V.) the velocity generated in the falling body in any time, is as the time of falling.

Cor. 1. *If a body be thrown directly upwards with the ſame velocity it falls with; it will loſe all its motion in the ſame time.*

For the ſame active force will deſtroy as much motion in any time, as it can generate in the ſame time.

Cor. 2. *Bodies deſcending or aſcending gain or loſe equal velocities in equal times.*

PROP. XIII.

In bodies falling freely by their own weight; the ſpaces deſcribed in falling from reſt, are as the ſquares of the times of falling.

For ſince gravity is ſuppoſed to be the ſame in all places near the earth. Therefore the falling

body

Fig. body will be acted on by a force which is conſtantly the ſame; and therefore (by Prop. VI.) the ſpaces deſcribed, from the beginning of the motion, or ſince their falling from reſt, will be as the ſquares of the times of falling.

Cor. 1. *The ſpaces deſcribed by falling bodies are as the ſquares of the velocities.*

For (Prop. XII.) the velocities are as the times of falling.

Cor. 2. *The ſpaces deſcribed by falling bodies, are in the compound ratio of the times, and the velocities acquired by falling.*

Cor. 3. *If a body falls through any ſpace, and move afterwards with the velocity gained in falling; it will deſcribe twice that ſpace in the time of its falling.*

Cor. 4. *A body projected upward with the velocity it gained in falling, will aſcend to the ſame height it fell from.*

SCHOLIUM.

All theſe things would be true if it was not for the reſiſtance of the air, which will retard their motion a little. In very ſwift motions, the reſiſtance of the air has a very great effect in deſtroying the motions of bodies.

PROP. XIV.

4. *If a heavy body* W *be ſuſtained upon an inclined plane* AC, *by a power* F *acting in direction* WF *parallel to the plane; and if* AB *be parallel to the horizon and* BC *perp. to it. Then if the length* AC *denotes the weight of the body, the hight* CB *will denote the power at* F *which ſuſtains it, and the baſe* AB *the preſſure againſt the plane.*

Draw BD perpendicular to AC, then CB will be the direction of gravity, DC parallel to WF will be the direction of the force at F, and DB the direction of the preſſure (by Prop. IX.). Therefore (by Prop. VIII.) the weight of the body, the power at F, and the preſſure; will be reſpectively as BC, CD and DB. But the triangles ABC, BDC are ſimilar, and therefore BC, CD and DB are reſpectively as AC, CB and BA. Therefore the weight, power and preſſure, are as the lines AC, CB and AB. Fig. 4.

Cor. 1. *The weight of the body, the power* F *that ſuſtains it on the plane, and the preſſure againſt the plane; are reſpectively as radius, the ſine and coſine of the planes elevation above the horizon.*

For AC, CB and AB are to one another, as radius, ſine of CAB, and ſine of ACB.

Cor. 2. *The power that urges a body* W *down the inclined plane is* $= \frac{CB}{AC} \times$ *weight of* W. *Hence,*

Cor. 3. *If a priſmatic body whoſe length is* AC *lie upon the inclined plane* AC; *it is urged down the plane with a force equal to the weight of the priſm of the length* CB.

Cor. 4. *If there be two planes of the ſame hight, and two bodies be laid on them proportional to the lengths of theſe planes; the tendency down the planes will be equal in both bodies.*

PROP. XV.

If AC *be an inclined plane,* AB *the horizon,* BC *perp. to* AB. *And if* W *be a heavy body upon the plane, which is kept there by the power* P *acting in direction* WP. *Draw* BDE *perp. to* WP. *Then the weight* W, *the power* P, *the preſſure againſt the plane; will be reſpectively as* AB, DB *and* AD. 5.

For AB being a horizontal plane is perpendicular to the action of gravity; and BD is perp. to the

Fig. 5. the direction of the power P; and AD is the plane, which is perp. to the direction of the preſſure againſt that plane. Therefore (Cor. 1. Prop. VIII.) the weight of the body, the power P, and the preſſure; are as AB, BD and AD. And if the direction of the power WP be under the plane, the proportion will be the ſame, as long as BD is perpendicular to WP.

Cor. 1. *The weight of the body* W, *is to the power* P *that ſuſtains it* : : *as coſine of the angle of traction* CWP : *to the ſine of the plane's elevation* CAB.

For the weight : power : : AB : BD : : S.ADB or WDE : S.BAD : : coſ. DWE or CWP : S.BAC, where the angle CWP made by the plane and direction of the power is called the angle of Traction.

Cor. 2. *Hence it is the ſame thing as to the power and weight, whether the line of direction is above or below the plane, provided the angle of traction be the ſame. For an equal power will ſuſtain the weight in both caſes.*

Cor. 3. *The weight of the body* : *is to the preſſure againſt the plane* : : *as the coſine of the angle of traction* CWP : *to the coſine of* BNP, *the direction of the power above the horizon.*

For the weight W : preſſure : : AB : AD : : S.ADB : S.ABD : : S.ADE : : S.NBE : : coſ. EWD or PWC : coſ. BNP.

Cor. 4. *Hence the preſſure againſt the plane is greater when the direction of the power is below the plane, the weight remaining the ſame.*

SCHOLIUM.

Altho' the power has the ſame proportion to the weight, when the angle of traction is the ſame; whether the direction of the power be above or below the plane. Yet, ſince the preſſure upon the plane is greater, when the line of direction is below the plane. Therefore in practice, when a weight is to be drawn up hill, if it is to be done by a power whoſe direction is below the plane, the greater preſſure in this caſe will make the carriage ſink deeper into the earth, &c. and for that reaſon will require a greater power to draw it up, than when the line of direction is above the plane. Fig. 5.

PROP. XVI.

If a weight W *upon an inclined plane* AC, *be in equilibrio with another weight* P *hanging freely; then if they be ſet a moving, their perpendicular velocities in that place, will be reciprocally as their quantities of matter.* 6.

Take WA a very ſmall line upon the plane AC; draw AB parallel to the horizon, and BC perp. to it. Draw AF, and WR, BE perpendicular to it; and WT, DV perp. to AB. Let W deſcend thro' the ſmall line WA upon the plane, then P will aſcend a hight equal to AR perpendicularly; and WT will be the perpendicular deſcent of W. The triangles AWR and ADE are ſimilar; and likewiſe the triangles AWT and ADV. Therefore WT : DV : : AW : : AD : : WR : DE. And A alternately, WT : WR : : DV : DE; and WR : AR : : DE : AE; therefore WT : AR : : DV : AE : : (by the ſimilar triangles DBV and AEB) DB : AB : : (Prop. XV.) power P : weight W.

Cor. 1. *If any two bodies be in equilibrio upon two inclined planes; their perpendicular velocities will be reciprocally as the bodies.*

Cor. 2. *If two bodies ſuſtain each other in equilibrio, on any planes; the product of one body × by its*

Fig. *perp. velocity, is equal to the product of the other body*
6. *× by its perp. velocity.*

PROP. XVII.

7. *If a heavy body runs down an inclined plane CA; the velocity it acquires in any time, moving from reſt; is to the velocity acquired by a body falling perpendicularly in the ſame time; as the hight of the plane CB, to its length CA.*

The force by which a body endeavours to deſcend on an inclined plane, is to its weight or the force of gravity; as CB to CA (by Prop. XIV.). And as theſe forces always remain the ſame, therefore (Cor. 2. Prop. V.) the velocities generated will be as theſe forces, and the times of acting, directly; and the bodies reciprocally. And ſince the times of acting, and the bodies are the ſame in both caſes, the velocities generated will be as theſe forces; that is, as the hight of the plane CB to its length CA.

Cor. 1. *The velocity acquired by a body running down an inclined plane, is as the time of its moving from reſt.*

Cor. 2. *If a body is thrown up an inclined plane, with the velocity it acquired in deſcending; it will loſe all its motion in the ſame time.*

PROP. XVIII.

7. *If a heavy body deſcends down an inclined plane CA; the ſpace it deſcribes from the beginning of the motion, is to the ſpace deſcribed by a body falling perpendicularly in the ſame time; as the hight of the plane CB, to its length CA.*

For the force urging the body down the plane is to the force of its gravity, as CB to CA (by Prop. XIV.),

XIV.), which forces remain conſtantly the ſame. Fig. And ſince (Prop. XVII.) the velocities generated 7. in equal times on the plane, and in the perpendicular, are conſtantly as CB to CA; the ſmall particles of ſpace deſcribed with theſe velocities, in all the infinitely ſmall portions of time, will ſtill be in the ſame ratio; and therefore the ſums of all theſe ſmall ſpaces, or the whole ſpaces deſcribed from the beginning, will be in the ſame conſtant ratio of CB to CA.

Cor. 1. *The ſpace deſcribed by a body falling down an inclined plane, in a given time, is as the ſine of the plane's elevation.*

For if CB be given, and alſo the perp. deſcent; that ſpace will be reciprocally as CA, or directly as S.CAB.

Cor. 2. *The ſpaces deſcribed by a body deſcending from reſt, down an inclined plane, are as the ſquares of the times.*

Cor. 3. *If* BD *be drawn perp. to the plane* CA; *then in the time a body falls perpendicularly thro' the hight* CB, *another body will deſcend thro' the ſpace* CD *upon the plane.*

For by ſimilar triangles CA : CB : : CB : CD.

PROP. XIX.

If AC *is an inclined plane, the time of a body's* 7. *deſcending thro' the plane* CA, *is to the time of falling perpendicularly thro' the hight of the plane* CB, *as the length of the plane* CA *to the hight* CB.

For if BD is perp. to CA, then (Cor. 2. Prop. XVIII.) ſpace CD : ſpace CA : : ſquare of the time in CD : ſquare of the time in CA : : that is, as the ſquare of the time of deſcending perpendicularly

Fig. 7. cularly in CB (Cor. 3. laſt) : ſquare of the time in CA. But CD : CA : : CB^2 : CA^2. Therefore CB^2 : CA^2 : ſquare of the time in CB : ſquare of the time in CA. And CB : CA : : time in CB : time in CA.

Cor. 1. *If a body be thrown upwards on the plane with the velocity acquired in deſcending; it will in an equal time aſcend to the ſame hight.*

Cor. 2. *The times wherein different planes, of the ſame hight, are paſſed over; are as the lengths of the planes.*

Let the planes be CA, CF. Then time in AC : time in CB : : CA : CB. And the time in CB : time in CF : : CB : CF. Therefore *ex equo*, time in AC : time in CF : : CA : CF,

PROP. XX.

8. *If a body falls down an inclined plane, it acquires the ſame velocity as a body falling perpendicularly thro' the hight of the plane.*

Let the body run down the plane CA whoſe hight is CB. Draw DF parallel to AB, and infinitely near it. Then the velocities in DA and FB, may be looked upon as uniform. Now (Prop. XIX.) the times of deſcribing CA and CB, will be as CA and CB. Likewiſe the times of deſcribing CD and CF, will be as CD and CF; that is, as CA and CB. And by diviſion, the difference of the times, or the times of deſcribing DA and FB, will alſo be as CA and CB; that is, as DA and FB. But (from Prop. III.) the velocities are equal when the ſpaces are as the times of deſcription, Therefore velocity at A is equal to the velocity at B.

Cor. 1. *The velocities acquired, by bodies deſcending on any planes, from the ſame hight to the ſame horizontal line, are equal.* Fig. 8.

Cor. 2. *If the velocities be equal at any two equal altitudes* D, F; *they will be equal at all other equal altitudes* A, B.

Cor. 3. *Hence alſo, if ſeveral bodies be moving in different directions, thro' any ſpace contained between two parallel planes; and be acted on by any force, which is equal at equal diſtances from either plane. Then if their velocities be equal at entering that ſpace; they will alſo be equal at emerging out of it.*

For dividing that ſpace into infinitely ſmall parts by parallel planes. Then the force between any two planes may be ſuppoſed uniform; and ſuppoſing DF, AB to repreſent two of theſe planes, then (by Cor. 2.) the velocities at D and F being equal; the velocities at A and B will be equal; that is, the velocities at entering the firſt part of ſpace being equal, the velocities at emerging out of it, or at entering the ſecond ſpace will be equal. And for the ſame reaſon the velocities at entering the ſecond ſpace being equal, thoſe at emerging out of it into the third, will be equal. And conſequently the velocities at entering into, and emerging out of the third, fourth, fifth, &c. to the laſt will be equal reſpectively.

PROP. XXI.

If a body falls from the ſame hight, thro' any number of contiguous planes AB, BC, CD; *it will at laſt gain the ſame velocity as a body falling perpendicularly from the ſame hight.* 9.

Let FH be a horizontal line, FD perp. to it. Produce the planes BC, DC to G and H. Then

Cor. 5. *If a body, in moving thro' any ſpace* ED, *be acted on uniformly by any force, its velocity at emerging out of it at* D, *will be equal to the ſquare root of the ſum of the ſquares of the velocity at* E *in entering of it, and of the velocity acquired in falling from reſt thro' that ſpace* ED. *And this holds whether the body moves perpendicularly or obliquely.* Fig. 9.

For let the body enter the ſpace ED at E, with the velocity acquired in falling thro' FE. Then (Prop. XIII. Cor. 1.) the ſquare of the velocity at E will be as FE; and the ſquare of the velocity at D, as FD; and the ſquare of the velocity at D falling from E, will be as ED. But FD = FE + ED; therefore the ſquare of the velocity at D (falling thro' FD) = ſquare of the velocity at E + ſquare of the velocity at D (falling thro' ED). And (Cor. 1. of this Prop.) the velocity will be the ſame whether the body deſcends perpendicularly or obliquely.

PROP. XXII.

The times of bodies deſcending thro' two ſimilar parts of ſimilar curves, placed alike, are as the ſquare roots of their lengths. 10.

Let ABCD and *abcd* be two ſimilar curves; and ſuppoſe BC and *bc* to be infinitely ſmall, and ſimilar to the whole; that is, ſo that BC : *bc* :: AB : *ab*. Draw FA parallel to the horizon, and HB, *hb* perp. to it. Then if two bodies deſcend from A and *a* (Cor. 4. Prop. XXI.) the velocities at B and *b* will be as $\sqrt{HB}$ and $\sqrt{hb}$; that is, as $\sqrt{AB}$ and $\sqrt{ab}$, becauſe AB, *ab* are ſimilar parts. Therefore (Prop. III. Cor. 1.) the times of deſcribing BC and *bc*, are as $\frac{BC}{\sqrt{AB}}$ and $\frac{bc}{\sqrt{ab}}$; that is, Cor. 1. *Hence the times of deſcending thro' all the cords of a circle drawn from* A *or* B, *are equal among themſelves.* Fig. 11.

Cor. 2. *The velocity gained by falling thro' the cord* CB, *is as its length* CB.

For the velocity gained in falling thro' CB is the ſame as is gained by falling thro' EB; and that velocity is to the velocity gained by falling thro' AB, as $\sqrt{BE}$ to $\sqrt{AB}$ (by Cor. 1. Prop. XIII.); that is, as BC to BA. Therefore if the given velocity in falling down AB be repreſented by AB. The velocity gained in falling down CB will be repreſented by CB; and ſo that in any other cord, by its length.

PROP. XXIV.

If a pendulum vibrates in the ſmall arch of a circle; the time of one vibration, is to the time of a body's falling perpendicularly thro' half the length of the pendulum; as the circumference of a circle, to the diameter. 12.

If a pendulum ſuſpended by a thread, &c. be made to vibrate in any curve; it is the ſame thing as if it deſcended down a ſmooth poliſhed body made in the form of that curve. For the motions, velocities, and times of moving will be the ſame in both.

Let OD or OE be the pendulum vibrating in the arch ADC, whoſe radius is OD. Let OD be perp. to the horizon, and take the arch E*e* infinitely ſmall, and draw ABC, EFG, *efg*, perp. to OD; and draw the cord AD. About BD deſcribe the ſemicircle BGD. Draw *er* and G*s* perp. to EG.

Put $t =$ time of deſcending thro' the diameter 2OD, or thro' the cord AD. Then the velocities gained

Fig. 12.

$\frac{t\times\sqrt{2OD}}{2BD\sqrt{2OD-DK}}\times 2BGD$. But when the arch ADC is exceeding ſmall, DK vaniſhes, and then the time of oſcillation in a very ſmall arch is = $\frac{t\times\sqrt{2OD}}{2BD\sqrt{2OD}}\times 2BGD=\frac{1}{2}t\times\frac{2BGD}{BD}$. But if t be the time of deſcending thro' 2OD, $\frac{1}{2}t$ is the time of deſcending thro' $\frac{1}{2}$ OD. And therefore BD the diameter, is to 2BGD the circumference; as the time of falling thro' half the length of the pendulum, to the time of one vibration.

Cor. 1. *In a ſmall arch* AED, *the time of deſcending thro' the cord* AD, *is to the time of deſcending thro' the arch* AED; *as the diameter* BD, *to* $\frac{1}{4}$ *the circumference.*

For the time of deſcending thro' the arch AED $=t\times\frac{BGD}{2BD}$; therefore BD : $\frac{1}{2}$ BGD :: t : time in AED.

Cor. 2. *All the vibrations of the ſame pendulum, in arches not very large, are performed nearly in the ſame time.*

Cor. 3. *If* KD *be biſſected in* L, *and* T *be* = *time of vibration in a very ſmall arch. Then* T + $\frac{KL}{DO+OK}\times$ T *will be the time of vibration in any arch* ADC, *nearly.*

For we found the time of vibration in ADC = $\frac{t\times BGD}{BD}\times\sqrt{\frac{2OD}{2OD-DK}}=T\times\sqrt{\frac{2OD}{OD+OK}}$; and the three lines DO + OK, DO + OL, and DO + OD are in arithmetical progreſſion; but ſince KD is very ſmall, they are nearly in geometrical

Cor. 2.) if the arches are ſmall, tho' not ſimilar, the vibrations will be the ſame as before.

Cor. 2. *The velocity of a pendulum at its loweſt point, is as the cord of the arch it deſcends thro'.*

For the velocity at the loweſt point is equal to the velocity gained in deſcending thro' the cord; for they are both of them the ſame as a body acquires by falling thro' their common altitude. And (Prop. XXIII. Cor. 2.) the velocity gained in falling thro' the cord, is as the length of the cord. Therefore the velocities of a pendulum in different arches, are in the ſame ratio.

PROP. XXVI.

Pendulums of the ſame length vibrate in the ſame time, whether they be heavier or lighter.

For let the two pendulums P, *p*, be of the ſame length; they will each of them fall thro' half the length of the pendulum in the ſame time. For (Cor. 2. Prop. V.) the velocity generated in any given time, is as the force directly and matter reciprocally. But in the two pendulums, the forces that generate their motions, are their weights, which are as their quantities of matter. Whence we have the velocity of P, to the velocity of *p*; as $\frac{P}{P}$ to $\frac{p}{p}$, or as 1 to 1; and therefore equal velocities are generated in the ſame time. Conſequently, equal ſpaces will be deſcribed in the ſame time, and therefore they will fall thro' half the length of one of them in an equal time. And therefore (Prop. XXIV.) their vibrations will be performed in the ſame time.

Cor. *Hence all bodies whether greater or leſſer, heavier or lighter, near the earth's ſurface will fall thro'*

Fig. *thro' equal ſpaces in equal times; abating the reſiſtance of the air.*

Becauſe they are as much retarded by their matter, as accelerated by their weight. The weight and the matter being exactly proportional to one another.

PROP. XXVII.

The lengths of pendulum's vibrating in the ſame time, in different places of the world, will be as the forces of gravity.

For (by Prop. V. Cor. 2.) the velocity generated in any time is as the force of gravity directly, and the quantity of matter reciprocally. And the matter being ſuppoſed the ſame in both pendulums, the velocity is as the force of gravity; and the ſpace paſſed thro' in a given time, will be as the velocity; that is, as the gravity. Therefore if any two ſpaces be deſcended thro' in any time, and two pendulums be made, whoſe lengths are double theſe ſpaces; theſe pendulums (by Prop. XXIV.) will vibrate in equal times; therefore the lengths of the pendulums, being as the ſpaces fallen thro' in equal times, will be as the forces of gravity.

Cor. 1. *The times wherein pendulums of the ſame length will vibrate, by different forces of gravity; are reciprocally as the ſquare roots of the forces.*

For (Cor. 2. Prop. V.) when the matter is given, the velocity generated is as the force × by the time. And (Prop. VI.) the ſpace deſcended thro' by any force, is as the force and ſquare of the time. Let theſe ſpaces be the lengths of the pendulums, then the lengths of the pendulums are as the forces and the ſquares of the times of falling thro' them. But (Prop. XXIV.) the times of falling thro' them are in a given ratio to the times of vibration;

whence the lengths of pendulums are as the forces and the ſquares of the times of vibration; therefore when the lengths are given, the forces will be reciprocally as the ſquares of the times; and the times of vibration reciprocally as the ſquare roots of the forces. Fig.

Cor. 2. *The lengths of pendulums in different places, are as the forces of gravity, and the ſquares of the times of vibration.*

This is proved under Cor. 1. Hence,

Cor. 3. *The times wherein pendulums of any length, perform their oſcillations; are as the ſquare roots of their lengths directly, and the ſquare roots of the gravitating forces reciprocally.*

Cor. 4. *The forces of gravity in different places, are as the lengths of pendulums directly, and the ſquares of the times of vibration reciprocally.*

PROP. XXVIII. *Prob.*

To find the length of a pendulum, that ſhall make any number of vibrations in a given time.

Reduce the given time into ſeconds, then ſay, as the ſquare of the number of vibrations given; to the ſquare of this number of ſeconds : : ſo is 39.13 : to the length of the pendulum ſought, in inches.

Ex. Suppoſe it makes 50 vibrations in a minute, here a minute is = 60 ſeconds; then,

As 2500 (the ſquare of 50) : 3600 (the ſquare of 60) : : 39.13 : to the length $= \frac{3600 \times 39.13}{2500}$ $= \frac{140868}{2500} = 56.34$ inches, the length required.

Fig. If it be required to find a pendulum that ſhall vibrate ſuch a number of times in a minute; you need only divide 140868, by the ſquare of the number of vibrations given, and the quotient will be the length of the pendulum.

This practice is deduced from Prop. XXV. for let p be the length of the pendulum, n the number of vibrations, t the time they are to be performed in. Then $39.13 : 1^2 :: p : \frac{p}{39.13} =$ ſquare of the time of one vibration, and $\sqrt{\frac{p}{39.13}} =$ time of one vibration; then if t be divided by $\sqrt{\frac{p}{39.13}}$ it will give n; that is, $t\sqrt{\frac{39.13}{p}} = n$, whence $tt \times 39.13 = nnp$, and $nn : tt :: 39.13 : p$.

If the pendulum is a thread with a little ball at it, then the diſtance between the point of ſuſpenſion and the center of the ball is eſteemed the length of the pendulum. But if the ball be large, ſay as the diſtance between the point of ſuſpenſion, and the center of the ball, is to the radius of the ball; ſo the radius of the ball to a third proportional. Set $\frac{2}{5}$ of this from the center of the ball downward; gives the center of oſcillation. Then the whole diſtance from the point of ſuſpenſion to this center of oſcillation, is the true length of the pendulum.

13. If the bob of the pendulum be not a whole ſphere, but a thin ſegment of a ſphere, as AB, as in moſt clocks; then to find the center of oſcillation, ſay as the diſtance between the point of ſuſpenſion, and the middle of the bob, is to half the breadth of the bob; ſo half the breadth of the bob, to a third proportional. Set one third of this length from the middle of the bob downwards, gives the center of oſcillation. Then the diſtance

between the centers of ſuſpenſion and oſcillation, is Fig. the exact length of the pendulum.

PROP. XXIX. *Prob.*

Having the length of a pendulum given; to find how many vibrations it ſhall make, in any given time.

Reduce the time given into ſeconds, and the pendulum's length into inches; then ſay, as the given length of the pendulum : to 39.13 : : ſo is the ſquare of the time given : to the ſquare of the number of vibrations, whoſe ſquare root is the number ſought.

Example. Suppoſe the length of the pendulum is 56.34 inches, to find how often it will vibrate in a minute.

1 minute = 60 ſeconds. Then, 56.34 (the length of the pendulum) : 39.13 : : 3600 (the ſquare of 60) : to the ſquare of the number of vibrations $= \frac{3600 \times 39.13}{56.34} = \frac{140868}{56.34} = 2500$, and $\sqrt{2500} = 50 =$ the number of vibrations ſought.

If the time given be a minute, you need only divide 140868 by the length, and extract the root of the quotient for the number of vibrations.

This is the reverſe of the laſt problem, therefore ſuppoſing as before in that problem, we have $tt \times 39.13 = nnp$; therefore $p : 39.13 : : tt : nn$.

They that would ſee a further account of the motions of bodies upon inclined planes, the vibrations of pendulums, and the motion of projectiles; may conſult my large book of Mechanics, where they will meet with full ſatisfaction.

Again, let the body F be ſuſpended with its center of gravity I upon the perpendicular IH. As this line has no inclination to move to any ſide, it will therefore remain at reſt. Take away the line IH, and let the center of gravity I be ſuſpended on the line IG, then the body will endeavour to deſcend along the arch IK, for the higheſt point of the arch is in the perpendicular erected at G. For the ſame reaſon if the body be ſuſpended on the line OI, it will endeavour to deſcend towards K, about the center O; now as both theſe motions tend the ſame way, and there is nothing to oppoſe them; the body muſt fall towards K. In both theſe caſes it is plain, that when the center of gravity by its motion, deſcends, the body will fall; but if not, the body will be ſupported without falling. Fig. 14.

Cor. 1. *If a body ſtands upon a plane, if a line be drawn from the center of gravity perpendicular to the horizon; if this line fall within the baſe on which the body ſtands, it will be ſupported without falling. But if the perpendicular falls without the baſe, the body will fall.*

For when the perpendicular falls within the baſe, the body can be moved no manner of way, but the center of gravity will riſe. And when the perpendicular falls without the baſe, towards any ſide; if the body be moved towards that ſide, the center of gravity deſcends; and therefore the body will fall that way.

Cor. 2. *If a perpendicular drawn from the center of gravity perp. to the horizon, fall upon the extremity of the baſe; the body may ſtand, but the leaſt force whatever, will cauſe it to fall that way. And the nearer the perp. is to any ſide, the eaſier it will be made to fall, or is ſooner thruſt over. And the nearer the perp. is to the middle of the baſe, the firmer the body ſtands.*

Fig. 14. Cor. 3. *Hence if the center of gravity of a body be ſupported, the whole body is ſupported. And the place of the center of gravity muſt be deemed the place of the body; and is always in a line drawn perpendicular to the horizon, thro' the center of gravity.*

Cor. 4. *Hence all the natural actions of animals may be accounted for from the properties of the center of gravity.*

When a man endeavours to walk, he ſtretches out his hind leg, and bends the knee of his fore leg, by which means his body is thruſt forward, and the center of gravity of his body is moved forward beyond his feet; then to prevent his falling, he immediately takes up his hind foot, and places it forward beyond the center of gravity; then he thruſts himſelf forward, by his leg which now is the hindmoſt, till his center of gravity be beyond his fore foot, and then he ſets his hind foot forward again; and thus he continues walking as long as he pleaſes.

In ſtanding, a man having his feet cloſe together cannot ſtand ſo firmly, as when they are at ſome diſtance; for the greater the baſe, the firmer the body will ſtand; therefore a globe is eaſily moved upon a plane, and a needle cannot ſtand upon its point, any otherwiſe than by ſticking it into the plane.

When a man is ſeated in a chair, he cannot riſe till he thruſts his body forward, and draws his feet backward, till the center of gravity of his body be before his feet; or at leaſt upon them; and to prevent falling forward, he ſets one of his feet forward, and then he can ſtand, or ſtep forward as he pleaſes.

All other animals walk by the ſame rules; firſt ſetting one foot forward, that way the center of gravity leans, and then another.

In walking up hill, a man bends his body forward, that the center of gravity may lie forward of his feet; and by that means he prevents his falling backwards. Fig.

In carrying a burthen, a man always leans the contrary way that the burthen lies; ſo that the center of gravity of the whole of his body and the burthen, may fall upon his feet.

A fowl going over an obſtacle, thruſts his head forward, by that means moving the center of gravity of his whole body forwards; ſo that by ſetting one foot upon the obſtacle, he can the more eaſily get over it.

PROP. XXXI.

In any two bodies A, B, *the common center of gravity* C, *divides the line joining their centers, into two parts, which are reciprocally as the bodies.* AC : BC : : B : A. 15.

Let the line ACB be ſuppoſed an inflexible lever; and let the lever and bodies be ſuſpended on the point C. Then let the bodies be made to vibrate about the immovable point C; then will A and B deſcribe two arches of circles about the center C, and theſe arches will be as the velocities of the bodies, and theſe arches are alſo as the radii of the circles AC and BC. Therefore their velocities are as the radii. Whence, velocity of A : velocity of B : : AC : CB : : (by ſuppoſition) B : A. Therefore A × velocity of A = B × velocity of B. Whence (Prop. II.) the quantities of motion of the bodies A and B are equal, and (Ax. 9.) therefore they cannot move one another, but muſt remain at reſt; and conſequently (def. 12.) C is the center of gravity of A and B.

Cor.

Fig. 15. Cor. 1. *The products of each body multiplied by its diſtance from the common center of gravity, are equal.* CA × A = CB × B.

Cor 2. *If a weight be laid upon* C, *a point of the inflexible lever* AB, *which is ſupported at* A *and* B; *the preſſure at* A *to the preſſure at* B, *will be as* CB *to* CA.

For let the bodies A, B, be both placed in C; then (Cor. 3. Prop. XXX.) ſince it is the ſame thing whether the bodies be at A and B, or both of them at C, their center of gravity; therefore the preſſures at A and B will be the ſame in both caſes. But when they are at A and B, upon the lever ACB, their preſſures are A and B, being the ſame with the weights; therefore when they are both at C, the preſſures at A and B will ſtill be A and B. Therefore (Cor. 1.) ſince it is CA × A = CB × B; therefore CA : CB : : B : A : : preſſure at B : preſſure at A.

PROP. XXXII.

15. *If there be three or more bodies, and if a line be drawn from one body* E *to the center of gravity of the reſt* C. *Then the center of gravity of all the bodies divides the line* CD, *in two parts in* D, *which are reciprocally as the body* E *to the ſum of all the other bodies.* CD : DE : : E : A + B *&c.*

For ſuppoſe AB and CE to be two inflexible lines; and let the body W = A + B &c. and let W be placed in the center of gravity C. Then by the laſt Prop. CD : DE : : E : W or A + B &c.

Cor. *The body* E × DE *the diſtance from the common center of gravity, is equal to the ſum of the bodies* A + B *&c.* × *by* DC *the diſtance of their center from the common center of gravity.*

PROP.

PROP. XXXIII.

If A, B, *be two bodies,* C *their center of gravity.* 16.
F *any point in the line* AB. *Then will* $FA \times A + FB \times B = FC \times \overline{A+B}$.

For (Cor. 1. Prop. XXXI.) $CA \times A = CB \times B$; that is, $\overline{FA - FC} \times A = \overline{FC - FB} \times B$; whence, by tranſpoſition $FA \times A + FB \times B = FC \times \overline{A+B}$.

Cor. *Hence the bodies* A *and* B *have the ſame force to turn the lever* AF *about the point* F, *as if they were both placed in* C *their center of gravity.*

PROP. XXXIV.

If ſeveral bodies A, B, E *&c. be placed on an* 17.
inflexible ſtreight lever; and if D *be their common center of gravity; and if* F *be any point in the line* AE, *then* $FA \times A + FB \times B + FE \times E$ *&c.* $= FD \times \overline{A+B+E}$ *&c.*

For if $A + B = W$, then $FA \times A + FB \times B + FE \times E = FC \times \overline{A+B} + FE \times E = FC \times W + FE \times E =$ (Prop. XXXIII.) $FD \times \overline{W+E} = FD \times \overline{A+B+E}$, in the three bodies A, B, E. And after the ſame manner, if there be four bodies, put $W = A + B + E$, and it will be proved the ſame way, that the ſum of all the products, $FA \times A + FB \times B$ &c. = diſtance of the common center of gravity × by all the four. And ſo on for more bodies.

Cor. *The ſame Prop. will hold good, when the bodies are not in the line* AF, *but any where in the perpendiculars paſſing thro' the points* A, B, E *&c.*

PROP.

For they act the contrary way in turning the lever about. Fig. 17.

PROP. XXXVI.

If ſeveral bodies A, B, E, G, H, *be placed on the lever* AH, *and* F *be the center of gravity of all the weights. Then* FA × A + FB × B + FE × E = FG × G + FH × H. 18.

For let the lever be ſuſpended on the point F, then the two ends will be in equilibrio, as F is the center of gravity. Let D be the center of gravity of A, B, E; and I the center of gravity of G, H. Then (Cor. Prop. XXXIII.) it is the ſame thing whether the bodies on one ſide be placed at A, B, E, or all of them in the point D. And whether thoſe at the other end be placed at G, H; or all of them at I. But ſince F is the center of gravity, $DF \times \overline{A+B+E} = FI \times \overline{G+H}$, and therefore A × AF + B × BF + E × EF = G × GF + H × HF (by Prop. XXXIV.)

Cor. 1. *If ſeveral bodies* A, B, E, G, H, *be placed on an inflexible lever, and if* A × FA + B × FB + E × FE = G × FG + H × FH. *Then* F *is the center of gravity of all the bodies.*

For no other point will anſwer the equation.

Cor. 2. *If ſeveral bodies* A, B, E, G, H, *be placed upon a lever* AH, *or ſuſpended at theſe points by ropes; and if* A × FA + B × FB + E × FE = G × FG + H × FH; *they will be in equilibrio upon the point* F.

This appears by Def. 12, and F is the center of gravity.

PROP.

PROP. XXXVII.

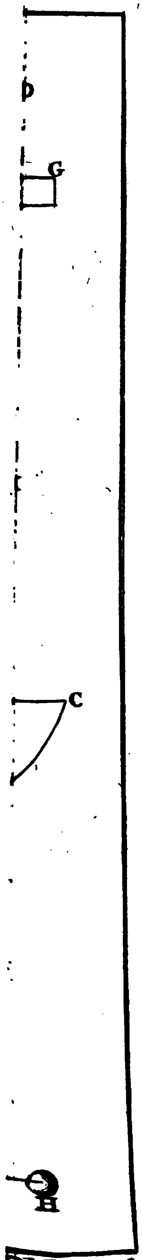
19. *If a heavy body* AB, *ſuſpended by two ropes* AC, BD, *remains at reſt; a right line perpendicular to the horizon, paſſing thro' the interſection* F *of the ropes; will alſo paſs thro' the center of gravity* G, *of the body.*

If AC and BD be produced to F where they interſect; then (ax. 12.) it is the ſame thing whether the force acting in direction AC be applied to C or F; and whether the force acting in direction BD be applied to the point D or F. Suppoſe then that they both act at F, and then it is the ſame thing, as if the body was ſuſpended at F by the two ſtrings AF, BF. And ſince the body is at reſt, therefore (Ax. 7.) the body, that is, the center of gravity G, is at the loweſt place it can get; and therefore is in the plumb line FG. For if the body be made to vibrate, the center of gravity G will deſcribe an arch of a circle, of which G (being in the perp. FG) is the loweſt point.

Cor. 1. *Hence if* GN *be drawn parallel to* AC; *then the weight of the body, the forces acting at* C *and* D, *are reſpectively as* FG, GN, *and* FN.
This is evident by Prop. VIII.

Cor. 2. *If a heavy body* AB, *be ſupported by two planes*, IKL, *and* EHG, *at* H and K; *and* HF *and* KF *be drawn perpendicular to theſe planes; and if* FG *be drawn from the interſection* F, *perp. to the horizon, it will paſs thro' the center of gravity* G, *of the body.*

For ſince the body is ſuſtained by theſe planes, therefore the planes re-act againſt the body (by Prop. IX.), in the directions HF, KF pependicular to theſe planes. Therefore it is the ſame thing



Pl. I. pa. 46.

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as if the body was ſuſtained by the two ropes HF, KF. For the directions and quantities of the forces, acting at H and K are the ſame in both caſes. And further, if the body be made to vibrate round F, the points H, K will deſcribe two arches of circles, coinciding with the touching planes at H, K; therefore moving the body up and down the planes, will be juſt the ſame thing, as making it vibrate in the ropes, HF and KF; and conſequently, the body can reſt in neither caſe, but when the center of gravity G is in the perpendicular FG. Fig. 19.

SCHOLIUM.

If any body ſhould deny the truth of this Prop. or its corollaries, againſt the cleareſt force of demonſtration. It lies upon them to ſhew where the demonſtration fails, or what ſtep or ſteps thereof do not hold good, or are not truly deduced from the foregoing. If they cannot do this, what other reaſons they may aſſign, can ſignify nothing at all to the purpoſe. And if ſuch perſon, ignorant of the laws of nature, and the reſolution of forces, would object againſt this practice, of ſubſtituting planes perpendicular to the lines or cords ſuſtaining any weights, inſtead of theſe cords. Let him firſt read Sir *J. Newton*'s *Principia*, Cor. 2. to the laws of nature, where he will ſee this practice exemplified, and then make his objections.

And for the ſake of ſuch perſons as underſtand not how to apply the method of compoſition and reſolution of forces, I ſhall add a few problems to prevent their being miſled by the raſh judgment of ſome people, who having brought out falſe ſolutions to ſome problems by their own ill management, condemn the method as erroneous; when the fault really lies in their own ignorance, and not at all in the method itſelf.

PROP.

Fig.

PROP. XXXVIII. *Prob.*

20. *To determine the poſition of a beam* CD, *movable about the end* C, *and ſuſtained by a given weight* Q, *hanging at a rope* QAD, *which goes over a pulley at* A *and is fixed to the other end* D.

Draw AF, CK parallel to the horizon, FDE perp. to it, and KD perp. to CD; and let G be the center of gravity, w = weight of the beam. Then if the beam was to lie horizontally (Prop. XXXI. Cor. 2.) it would be GC : GD :: preſſure at D : preſſure at C; and GC : CD :: preſſure at D : w; whence the preſſure at D $= \frac{GC}{CD} w$, horizontally. And (Prop. XIV.) CD : CE :: $\frac{GC}{CD} w$: $\frac{CE \times CG}{CD^2} w$ = preſſure in direction DK. Produce AD to O, and draw OI parallel to CD. Then the beam is ſuſtained by three forces in directions OD, DI and IO; and DI : DO :: S.IOD or ODC or ADC : rad; whence S.ADC : rad :: $\frac{CE \times CG}{CD^2} \times w$: force DO or Q $= \frac{rad \times CE \times CG}{S.ADC \times CD^2} w$. Therefore w : Q :: S.ADC : rad × $\frac{CE \times CG}{CD^2}$ :: S.ADC : $\frac{CG}{CD} \times$ S.FDC, becauſe $\frac{rad \times CE}{CD}$ = S.EDC or FDC.

PROP. XXXIX. *Prob.*

21. *Let the beam* ED, *be ſuſtained by the weights* P, Q, *by means of the ropes* DCP, EAQ, *going over the pulleys* C, A, *in the horizontal line* AC. *To find the poſition of the beam; having the weights* P, Q, *given.*

1 *Way.*

Let G be the center of gravity of the beam. Thro' D, E, draw HDS, FER perpendicular to AC.

Fig. 21. AC: Then (Cor. 2. Prop. VIII.) S.EDS : P the tenſion of the thread CD : : S.CDS or CDH : $\frac{S.CDH}{S.EDS} \times P$ the tenſion of DE. Alſo, S.DER or EDS : Q : : S.AER or AEF : $\frac{S.AEF}{S.EDS} \times Q$ the tenſion of DE in a contrary direction. Then as the beam is in equilibrio, theſe forces or tenſions balance one another; therefore $\frac{S.CDH}{S.EDS} \times P = \frac{S.AEF}{S.EDS} \times Q$. Then P : Q : : S.AEF : S.CDH; which may be otherwiſe expreſſed, for AE : rad : : AF : S.AEF $= \frac{AF}{AE} \times$ rad; and DC : rad : : HC : $\frac{HC}{DC} \times$ rad = S.HDC. Whence P : Q : : $\frac{AF}{AE} : \frac{CH}{CD} : : \frac{AF}{HC} : \frac{AE}{DC}$.

2 *Way*.

Let R, S be the perpendicular preſſures of the ends E, D. w = weight of the beam. Then (Cor. 2. Prop. XXXI.) $R = \frac{DG}{ED} w$, and $S = \frac{EG}{ED} w$. And (Cor. 2. Prop. VIII.) S.AED : R or $\frac{DG}{ED} w$: : S.AEF : tenſion of DE $= \frac{S.AEF \times DG}{S.AED \times ED} w$. And S.CDE : S or $\frac{EG}{ED} w$: : S.CDH : contrary tenſion of DE $= \frac{S.CDH \times EG}{S.CDE \times ED} w$, and theſe two forces of DE being equal, we have $\frac{S.AEF \times DG}{S.AED \times ED} w =$

Fig. 21. which they are directly oppoſite. And therefore the beam will remain unmoved by theſe. But the equal forces DY, EX, being parallel, never meet in a point; but acting obliquely on the beam, one of them drawing at D in direction DY, and the other at E in direction EX, the effect will be, that they will turn the beam ED about the center of gravity G. Therefore to prevent this, the forces DY, EX, muſt be ſubdivided; that is, they muſt be reſolved into others, one whereof is perp. to the horizon, the other parallel to ED. Then gravity will balance theſe perp. to the horizon, and the others, being equal and oppoſite, acting in the line EGD, act equally againſt any of the points D, G, or E. And ſo the beam will remain at reſt. But this is much better done at once at the firſt, by dividing DC, EF, each into two forces, one perp. to the horizon, the other parallel to the beam ED. And then the oppoſite forces will exactly balance one another, and the beam remain unmoved.

PROP. XL. *Prob.*

22. *To find the poſition of the beam* ED, *hanging by the rope* EBD, *whoſe ends are faſtened at* E *and* D, *and goes over a pulley fixed at* B.

Let G be the center of gravity of the beam, then (Prop. XXXVII.) BG will be perp. to the horizon. Then as the cord runs freely about the pulley B; therefore (Ax. 13.) the tenſion of the parts of the rope EB, BD are equal to one another, ſuppoſe = T. By the reſolution of forces, the force EB is equivalent to EG, GB; and DB to DG, GB. Therefore BE : EG : : T : $\frac{EG}{EB}$T = force in direction EG. And BD : DG : : T : $\frac{DG}{BD}$T = force in

Fig. 22. direction DG, which is equal and oppoſite to that in EG; therefore $\frac{EG}{EB}T = \frac{DG}{DB}T$. Whence EG : EB : : DG : DB. And therefore BG biſects the angle EBD.

Cor. *Hence* ED : *ſtring* EBD : : EG : EB *the part* EB *of the ſtring* : : *and ſo* GD : DB *the part* DB *of the ſtring.*

SCHOLIUM.

If GD be leſs than GE, then the center of gravity G, will be loweſt, when the beam hangs perpendicular with the end D downward. And in many caſes it will be higheſt, when it hangs perpendicular, with the end E downward.

PROP. XLI. *Prob.*

23. *There is a beam* BC *hanging by a pin at* C, *and lying upon the wall* BE; *to find the forces or preſſures at the points* B, *and* C, *and their directions.*

Produce BC to K, ſo that CK may be equal to CB. Draw BA parallel, and CL perpendicular, to the horizon; and draw BL, CN, KI perp. to BCK. Thro' the center of gravity G, draw GF parallel to CL. By Prop. XIV. if a body lies upon an inclined plane, as BC; its weight, its inclination down the plane, and preſſure againſt it, are as BC, CA and AB; that is, as CL, CB and BL. Therefore if CL repreſent the weight of the body, CB will be the force urging it down the plane, and BL the total preſſure againſt the plane. And ſince GF is parallel to CL, BL is divided in F, in the ſame ratio, as BC is divided in G. And therefore (Cor. 2. Prop. XXXI.) BF will be the part of the preſſure acting at C, and FL the part acting at B. Make CN equal to BF, and compleat the parallelogram CNIK, and draw CI. Then Fig. 23. ſince BC or CK is the force in direction CK, and CN the force in direction CN; then by compoſition, CI will be the ſingle force by which C is ſuſtained, and CI its direction. But the triangles CKI, CBF are ſimilar and equal, and CI = CF, and in the ſame right line; therefore CF is the quantity and direction of the force acting at C to ſuſtain it. Therefore the weight of the body, the preſſure at B, and the force at C; are reſpectively as CL, FL, and CF.

Cor. 1. *Produce* FG *to interſect* CN *in* H; *then the weight of the body, the preſſure at* B, *and the force acting at* C; *are reſpectively as* HF, HC, *and* CF.

For in the parallelogram CLFH, HF = CL, and HC = FL.

Cor. 2. *If the beam was ſupported by a pin at* B, *and laid upon the wall* AC; *the like conſtruction muſt be made at* B, *as has been done at* C, *and then the forces and directions will be had.*

Cor. 3. *If a line perp. to the horizon be drawn thro'* F, *where the direction of the forces* CF, *and* BF *meet; it paſſes thro'* G *the center of gravity of the beam.*

Cor. 4. *It is all one whether the beam is ſuſtained by the pin* C *and the wall* BE, *or by two ropes* CI, BP *acting in the directions* FC, FB, *and with the forces* CF, FL.

SCHOLIUM.

The proportions and directions of the forces here found, are the ſame as in Prop. LXIV. of my large book of Mechanics, and obtained here by a different method. The principles here uſed are indiſputable; and the principle made uſe of in that

Fig. LXIV. Prop. is here demonſtrated in the third Cor. 23. ſo that the reader may depend upon the truth of them all.

PROP. XLII. *Prob.*

24. BC *is a heavy beam ſupported upon two poſts* KB, LC; *to find the poſition of the poſts, that the beam may reſt in equilibrio.*

Let G be the center of gravity; draw BA parallel to the horizon, and BF, GD, CAN perpendicular to it. Then (Prop. XXXI. Cor. 2.) if BC be the weight of the body, CG will be the part of the weight acting at B, and BG the weight at C. Therefore make CN = BG, and BF = GC; and from N and F, draw NI, FK, parallel to BC; and make NI = FK, of any length, and lying contrary ways. Then draw IC and KB, which will be the poſition of the poſts required.

For BF is the weight upon B; and CN, that upon C, which forces being in direction of the lines BF, CN, the beam will remain at reſt by theſe forces. And the forces NI, FK, in direction BC, being equal and contrary, will alſo keep the beam in equilibrio, therefore the forces KB, IC, compounded of the others, will alſo keep the beam in equilibrio, acting in the directions KB, IC, or MB, LC.

Cor. 1. *Hence if* DG *be produced, it will paſs thro' the interſection* H, *of the lines* LC, MB.

For the triangles INC, CGH are ſimilar; therefore IN : NC : : CG : GH, the interſection with CL. Alſo the triangles KFB, BGH are ſimilar; therefore KF : BG : : BF : GH the interſection with MB, which muſt needs be the ſame as the other, ſince the three firſt terms of the proportion are the ſame; for KF = NI, BG = NC, and BF = CG.

Cor. 2. *If a line be drawn thro' the center of gravity* G, *of the beam, perpendicular to the horizon; and from any point* H *in that line, (above or below* G), *the lines* HBK *and* HCM *be drawn; then the props* BM *and* CL *will ſuſtain the beam in equilibrio.* Fig. 24.

Cor. 3. *If* GO *be drawn parallel to* HC; *then the weight of the beam, the preſſure at* C, *and thruſt or preſſure at* B; *are reſpectively as* HG, OG, *and* HO, *and in theſe directions.*

Cor. 4. *It is all one for maintaining the equilibrium, whether the beam* BC *be ſupported by two poſts or props* MB, LC; *or by two ropes* BH, CH; *or by two planes perpendicular to theſe ropes at* B *and* C.

For in all theſe caſes the forces and directions are the ſame; and there is nothing elſe concerned, but the forces and directions.

SCHOLIUM.

It does not always happen that the center of gravity is at the loweſt place it can get, to make an equilibrium. For here if the beam BC be ſupported by the poſts MB, LC; the center of gravity is at the higheſt it can get; and being in that poſition, it has no inclination to move one way more than another, and therefore it is as truly in equilibrio, as if it was at the loweſt point. It is true, any the leaſt force will deſtroy that equilibrium, and then if the beam and poſts be movable about the angles M, B, C, L, which is all along ſuppoſed, the beam will deſcend till it is below the points M, L, and gain ſuch a poſition as deſcribed in Prop. XXXIX. and its Cor. ſuppoſing the ropes fixed at A, C (fig. 21.); and then G will be at the loweſt point, and will come to an equilibrium again. In planes, the center of gravity G may be either at its higheſt or loweſt point. And there are caſes, when the

Fig. 24. the center of gravity is neither at its higheſt nor loweſt, as may happen in the caſe of Prop. XL. ſo that they who contend, that in caſe of an equilibrium, the center of gravity muſt *always* be at the loweſt place, are much miſtaken, and know little about the principles of mechanics, or the nature of things.

Thoſe that want to ſee more variety about the motion of bodies, on inclined planes; the preſſure, and direction of the preſſure of beams of timber; centers of gravity, and alſo the centers of oſcillation and percuſſion, &c. may conſult my large book of Mechanics.

Fig.

SECT. IV.

The MECHANICAL POWERS; *the Strength and Streſs of Timber.*

PROP. XLIII.

IN a balance, where the arms are of equal length; if two equal weights be ſuſpended at the ends, they will be in equilibrio.

The balance is a ſtreight inflexible rod or beam, turning about a fixed point or axle in the middle of it; to be loaded at each end with weights ſuſpended there.

Let AB be the beam or lever, C the middle point or center of motion; D, E the weights hanging at the ends A and B. Then let the beam and the weights, or the whole machine, be ſuſpended at C. And ſuppoſe the beam and the weights be turned about upon the center C; then the points A, B being equidiſtant from C will deſcribe equal arches, and therefore the velocities will be equal, and if the bodies D and E be equal, then the motion of D will be equal to the motion of E, as their quantities of matter and velocities are equal; and conſequently, if the beam and weights are ſet at reſt, neither of them can move the other, but they will remain in equilibrio. 25.

Cor. *If one weight be greater than the other; that weight and ſcale will deſcend, and raiſe the other.*

SCHOLIUM.

The uſe of the balance, or a common pair of ſcales, is to compare the weights of different bodies;

Fig. 25. dies; for any body whoſe weight is required, being put into one ſcale, and balanced by known weights put into the other ſcale, theſe weights will ſhew the weight of the body. To have a pair of ſcales perfect, they muſt have theſe properties. 1. The points of ſuſpenſion of the ſcales, and the center of motion of the beam, A, C, B, muſt be in a right line. 2. The arms AC, BC, muſt be of equal length from the center. 3. That the center of gravity be in the center of motion C. 4. That there be as little friction as poſſible. 5. That they be in equilibrio, when empty.

If the center of gravity of the beam be above the center of motion, and the ſcales be in equilibrio, if they be put a little out of that poſition, by putting down one end of the beam, that end will continually deſcend, till the motion of the beam is ſtopt by the handle H. For by that motion, the center of gravity is continually deſcending, according to the nature of it. But if the center of gravity of the beam be below the center of motion; if one end of the beam be put down a little, to deſtroy the equilibrium; it will return back and vibrate up and down. For by this motion the center of gravity is endeavouring to deſcend.

PROP. XLIV. *Prob.*

25. *To make a falſe balance; or one which is in equilibrio when empty, and alſo in equilibrio, when loaded with unequal weights.*

Make ſuch a balance as deſcribed in the laſt Prop. only inſtead of making the center of motion in the middle at C, make it nearer one end, as at F. And make the weight of the ſcales ſuch, that they may be in equilibrio upon the center F. Then if two weights D, E, be made to be in equilibrio in the two ſcales; theſe weights will be unequal, for they will be reciprocally as the lengths of the arms AF, BF. That is, AF : BF :: E : D. Fig. 25.

For (Prop. XXXI. Cor. 1.) ſince F is the center of gravity of D and E, ſuppoſing them to act at A and B; therefore FA × D = FB × E. And FA : FB :: E : D. But AF is greater than FB, therefore E is greater than D.

Cor. 1. *Hence to diſcover a falſe balance, make the weights in the two ſcales to be in equilibrio; then change the weights to the contrary ſcales. And if they be not in equilibrio, the balance is falſe.*

Cor. 2. *Hence alſo to prove a pair of good ſcales, they muſt be in equilibrio when empty, and likewiſe in equilibrio with two weights. Then if the weights be changed to the contrary ſcales, the equilibrium will ſtill remain, if the ſcales are good.*

Cor. 3. *From hence alſo may be known what is gained or loſt, by changing the weights, in a falſe balance.*

Take any weight as 1 pound, to be put into one ſcale and balanced by any ſort of goods in the other. Since AF × D = BF × E; let the weight D be 1, then E $= \frac{AF}{BF}$ the weight of the goods in the ſcale E. Then changing the ſcales, let the weight E be 1; then D $= \frac{BF}{AF}$ the weight of the goods in the ſcale D. Then $\frac{AF}{BF} + \frac{BF}{AF} =$ whole weight of the goods, and $\frac{AF}{BF} + \frac{BF}{AF} - 2 =$ gain to the buyer in 2 lb. &c. Therefore

$$\frac{AF^2 + BF^2 - 2AF \times BF}{AF \times BF} = \text{gain in 2 lb.} = \frac{\overline{AF - BF}|^2}{AF \times BF}; \text{ and } \frac{\overline{AF - BF}|^2}{2AF \times BF} = \text{gain in 1 lb.}$$

There-

Fig. 25. Therefore if w is any weight to be bought; the gain to the buyer, for the weight w, by changing the ſcales, will be $\frac{\overline{AF - BF}^2}{2AF \times BF} w$. For example, if AF be 16, and BF 15; then the gain will be $\frac{\overline{16 - 15}^2}{2 \times 16 \times 15} w = \frac{1}{480} w$.

SCHOLIUM.

In demonſtrating the properties of the mechanical powers; ſince the weight is commonly ſome large body whoſe weight is to be overcome or balanced; therefore the power which acts againſt it, will be moſt fitly repreſented by another weight; and thus the power and weight being of the ſame kind, may moſt properly and naturally be compared together. For ſuch a weight may repreſent any power, as the ſtrength of a man's hand, the force of water or wind, &c. And this weight repreſenting the power, being ſuſpended by a rope, may hang perpendicular where the power is to act perpendicular to the horizon; or may go over a pulley, when it acts obliquely.

PROP. XLV.

26. *If the power and weight be in equilibrio upon any*
27. *lever, and act in lines perpendicular to the lever;*
28. *then the power* P *is to the weight* W; *as the diſ-*
29. *tance of the weight from the ſupport* C, *is to the diſtance of the power from the ſupport.*

There are four ſorts of levers. 1. When the ſupport is between the weight and the power. 2. When the weight is between the power and the ſupport. 3. When the power is between the weight and the ſupport. 4. When the lever is not ſtreight, but crooked.

A lever is any inflexible rod or beam, of wood or metal, made uſe of to move bodies. The ſupport is the prop it reſts on, in moving or ſuſtaining any heavy body, and this is the ſame as the center of motion. Fig. 26. 27. 28. 29.

Let the power P act at A by means of a rope; then as C is the prop or center of motion, if the lever be made to move about the center C, the arches deſcribed by A and W; that is, the velocities of A and W will be as the radii CA and CW. But the velocity of P is the ſame as that of the point A. Therefore velocity of P : velocity of W : : CA : CW : : (by ſuppoſition) W : P; therefore P × velocity of P = W × velocity of W. Conſequently their motions are equal, and they cannot move one another, but muſt remain in equilibrio. And if they be in equilibrio, they muſt have this proportion aſſigned.

Cor. 1. *If a power* P *act obliquely againſt the lever* WA; *the power and weight will be in equilibrio, when the power* P *is to the weight* W; *as the diſtance of the weight* CW, *to* CD *the perpendicular, drawn from the ſupport to the line of direction of the power.* 30.

For in this caſe WCD becomes a bended lever, and the power P acts perpendicular to CD at D; and (Ax. 12.) it is all one whether the power acts at D or A, in the line of direction AD. And hence,

Cor. 2. *If any force be applied to a lever* ACW *at A, its power to turn it about the center of motion* C, *is as the ſine of the angle of application* CAD.

For if CA be given, CD is as the ſine of CAD.

Cor. 3. *In a ſtreight lever, of theſe three, the power, the weight, and the preſſure upon the ſupport; the middlemoſt is equal to the ſum of the other two.*

For the middle one acts againſt both the others and ſupports them.

Fig. 30. Cor. 4. *From the foregoing properties of the lever, the effects of ſeveral ſorts of ſimple machines may be explained; and likewiſe the manner of lifting, carrying, drawing of heavy bodies, and ſuch like.*

26. For example, if a given weight W is to be raiſed by a ſmall power applied at A, the end of the lever AW. If we divide WA in C, ſo that it be as CA : CW : : as the weight W : to the power P; then fixing a prop or ſupport at C or rather a little nearer W; then the power P with a ſmall addition, will raiſe the weight W.

27. Again, if two men be to carry a weight W, upon the lever CA. The weight the man at A carries, is to the weight the man at C carries as CW, to AW. And therefore the lever or beam CA ought to be divided in that proportion at W, the place where the weight is to lie, according to the ſtrength of the men that carry it.

31. Likewiſe if two horſes be to draw at the ſwing-tree AB, by the ropes AF, BG; and the ſwing-tree draws a carriage &c. by the rope CD; then the force acting at A will be to the force acting at B, as BC to AC. And therefore BC ought to be to AC, as the ſtrength of the horſe at F, to the ſtrength of the horſe at G; the weaker horſe having the longer end. But it is proper to make the croſs bar AB crooked at C; that when the ſtronger horſe pulls his end more forward, he may pull obliquely, and at a leſs diſtance from the center; whilſt the weaker horſe pulls at right angles to his end, and at a greater diſtance.

Again, ſuch inſtruments as crows and handſpikes are levers of the firſt kind, and are very uſeful and handy for raiſing a great weight to a ſmall hight. Alſo ſciſſars, pinchers, ſnuffers, are double levers of the firſt kind, where the joint is the fulcrum or ſupport. The oars of a boat, the rudder of a ſhip, cutting knives fixed at one end, are levers of the ſecond kind. Tongs, ſheers, and the bones of animals, are levers of the third kind, a ladder raiſed upright, is a lever of the third kind. A hammer drawing out a nail is a lever of the fourth kind. Fig. 32.

The *Steel Yard* is nothing but a lever of the firſt kind, whoſe mechaniſm or conſtruction is this. Let AB be the beam, C the point of ſuſpenſion; P the power, movable along the beam CB. The beam being ſuſpended at D, move the power P, along towards C, till you find the point O, where P reduces the beam to an equilibrium. Then at A hang on the weight W of 1 pound; and move P to be in equilibrio with it at 1; then hang on W of 2 pound, and ſhift P till it be in equilibrio, at 2. Proceed thus with 3, 4, 5, &c. pounds at W, and find the diviſions 3, 4, 5, &c. Or if you will; after having found the points O, 1; make the diviſions, 12, 23, 34, &c. each equal to O1. But for more exactneſs and expedition, having found the point O, where P makes the beam in equilibrio: hang on any known number of pounds, as W; and move P to the point B, where it makes an equilibrium. Then divide OB into as many equal parts as W conſiſts of pounds: mark theſe diviſions 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. Then any weight W being ſuſpended at A. If P be placed to make an equilibrium therewith; then the number where P hangs will ſhew the pounds or weight of W.

To prove this, we muſt obſerve, that AC is the heavier end of the beam; therefore let Q be the *Momentum* at that end to make an equilibrium with P ſuſpended at O; that is, let $Q = CO \times P$. But (Cor. 2. Prop. XXXVI.) $Q + CA \times W = CF \times P = CO \times P + OF \times P$. Take away $Q = CO \times P$, and then $CA \times W = OF \times P$. Whence $AC : P :: OF : W$. But AC and P are always the ſame; therefore W is as OF; that is,

Fig. if OF be 1, 2, 3, &c. diviſions, then W is 1, 2, 3,
32. &c. pounds.

We may take notice that the diviſions O1, 12, 23, &c. are all equal; but CO may be greater or leſſer, or nothing.

If you would know how much the weight P is, take the diſtance CA, and ſet it from O along the diviſions O, 1, 2, 3, &c. and it will reach to the number of pounds. But this is of no conſequence, being only matter of curioſity.

PROP. XLVI.

33. *In the compound lever, or where ſeveral levers act upon one another, as* AB, BC, CD, *whoſe ſupports are* F, G, I; *the power* P : *is to the weight* W : : *as* BF × CG × DI : *to* AF × BG × CI.

For the power P acting at A : force at B : : BF : AF; and force or power at B : force at C : : CG : GB; and force or power at C : weight W : : DI : IC. Therefore *ex equo*, power P : weight W : : BF × CG × DI : AF × GB × IC.

And it is the ſame thing in the other kinds of levers, taking the reſpective diſtances, from the ſeveral props or ſupports.

PROP. XLVII.

34. *In the wheel and axle; the weight and power will be in equilibrio, when the power* P *is to the weight* W; *as the radius of the axle* CA, *where the weight hangs; to the radius of the wheel* CB, *where the power acts.*

This is a wheel fixed to a cylindrical roller, turning round upon a ſmall axis; and having a rope going round it.

Thro'

b
B
a.66.

Fig. 34. Thro' the center of the wheel C, draw the horizontal line BCA. Then BP and AW are perpendicular to BA; and BCA will be a lever whoſe ſupport is C; and the power acts always at the diſtance BC, and the weight at the diſtance CA; which remain always the ſame. Therefore the weight and power act always upon the lever BCA. But by the property of the lever (Prop. XLV.) BC : CA : : W : P, to have an equilibrium.

Otherwiſe,

If the wheel be ſet a moving the velocity of the point A or of W, is to that of B or P, as CA to CB; that is (by ſuppoſition), as P : W. Therefore W × velocity of W = P × velocity of P; therefore the motions of P and W, being equal, they cannot, when at reſt, move one another.

35. Cor. 1. *If the power acting at the radius* CB, *act not at right angles to it; draw* CD *perpendicular to* BP *the direction of the power; then the power* P : *is to the weight* W : : *as the radius of the axle* CA : *to the perpendicular* CD.

For in the lever DCA, whoſe ſupport is C, the power P : weight W : : CA : CD.

36. Cor. 2. *In a roller turned round, on the axis or ſpindle* FC, *by the handle* CBG; *the power applied perpendicularly to* BC *at* B, *is to the weight* W : : *as the radius of the roller* DA, *to the length of the handle* CB.

For in turning round, the point B deſcribes the circumference of a circle; the ſame as if it was a wheel whoſe radius is CB.

SCHOLIUM.

All this is upon ſuppoſition that the rope ſuſtaining the weight is of no ſenſible thickneſs. But if it is a thick rope, or if there be ſeveral folds of

Fig. it about the roller or barrel; you muſt meaſure
36. to the middle of the out ſide rope to get the radius of the roller. For the diſtance of the weight from the center is increaſed ſo much, by the rope's going round.

From hence the effects of ſeveral ſorts of machines, or inſtruments, may be accounted for. A roller and handle for a well or a mine, is the ſame thing as a wheel and axle, a windleſs and a capſtain in a ſhip is the ſame; and ſo is a crane to draw up goods with. A gimblet and an auger to bore with, may be referred to the wheel and axle.

The wheel and axle has a particular advantage over the lever; for a weight can but be raiſed a very little way by the lever. But by continual turning round of the wheel and roller, the weight may be raiſed to any hight required.

PROP. XLVIII.

37. *In a combination of wheels with teeth; if the power* P *be to the weight* W : : *as the product of the diameters of all the axles or pinions, to the product of the diameters of all the wheels; the power and weight will be in equilibrio.*

AC, CD are the radii of one wheel and its axle; DG, GH, the radii of another; and HI, IK are thoſe of another. Theſe act upon one another at D and H, then as the power or force P is propagated thro' all the wheels and axles to W; we muſt proceed to find the ſeveral forces acting upon them, by Prop. XXXVII. Thus,

$$CD : CA :: P : \frac{CA}{CD}P = \text{force acting at D.}$$

$$\text{and } GH : GD :: \frac{CA}{CD}P \text{ (force at D)} : \frac{CA\times GD}{CD\times GH}P = \text{force acting at H.}$$

and IK : IH : : $\frac{CA \times GD}{CD \times GH}$ P (force at H) : Fig. 37. $\frac{CA \times GD \times IH}{CD \times GH \times IK}$ P $=$ force at K $=$ W. And CA $\times$ GD $\times$ IH $\times$ P $=$ CD $\times$ GH $\times$ IK $\times$ W; whence P : W : : CD $\times$ GH $\times$ IK : : CA $\times$ GD $\times$ IH.

Cor. 1. *If the weight and power be in equilibrio, and made to move; the velocity of the weight, is to the velocity of the power; as the product of the diameters of all the axles or pinions, to the product of the diameters of all the wheels. Or inſtead of the diameters, take the number of teeth in theſe axles and wheels that drive one another. And the ſame is true of wheels carried about by ropes.*

For the power is to the weight; as the velocity of the weight to the velocity of the power. And the number of teeth in the wheels and pinions, that drive one another, are as the diameters. And the ropes ſupply the place of teeth.

Cor. 2. *In a combination of wheels with teeth. The number of revolutions of the firſt wheel, is to the number of revolutions of the laſt wheel, in any time; as the product of the diameters of the pinions or axles, to the product of the diameters of the wheels: or as the product of the number of teeth in the pinions, to the product of the number of teeth in the wheels which drive them. And the ſame is true of wheels going by cords.*

For as often as the number of teeth in any pinion, is contained in the number of teeth of the wheel that drives it; ſo many revolutions does that pinion make for one revolution of the wheel.

SCHOLIUM.

A pinion is nothing but a ſmall wheel, fixed at the other end of the axis, oppoſite to the wheel;

Fig. 37. and conſiſts but of a few leaves or teeth; and therefore is commonly leſs than the wheel. But in the ſenſe of this propoſition, a pinion may, if we pleaſe, be bigger than the wheel. As if we put the power and weight into the contrary places, the wheels will become the pinions, and the pinions the wheels, according to the meaning of this propoſition.

PROP. XLIX.

If a power ſuſtains a weight by means of a fixed pulley; the power and weight are equal; but if the pulley be movable along with the weight, then the weight is double the power.

A pulley is a ſmall wheel of wood or metal, turning round upon an axis, fixed in a block; on the edge of the pulley is a groove for the rope to go over.

38. 39. Thro' the centers of the pullies, draw the horizontal lines AB, CD; then will AB repreſent a lever of the firſt kind, and its ſupport is the center of the pulley, which is a fixed point, the block being fixed at F. And the points A, and B, where the power and weight act, being equally diſtant from the ſupport, therefore (Prop. XLV.) the power P = weight W.

Alſo CD repreſents a lever of the ſecond kind, whoſe ſupport is at C, a fixed point, the rope CG being fixed at G. And the weight W acting at the middle of CD, and the power acting at D, twice the diſtance from C; therefore (Prop. XLV.) the power P is to the weight W : : as $\frac{1}{2}$ CD to CD; or as 1 to 2.

Cor. *Hence all fixed pullies are levers of the firſt kind, and ſerve only to change the direction of the motion; but make no addition at all to the power.*

And therefore if a rope goes over ſeveral fixed pullies; the power is not increaſed, but rather decreaſed, by the friction. Fig. 38. 39.

Scholium.

The uſe of a fixed pulley is of great ſervice in raiſing a weight to any height, which otherwiſe muſt be carried by ſtrength of men, which is often impracticable. Therefore if a rope is fixed to the weight at W (fig. 38.) and paſſed over the pulley BA; a man taking hold at P will draw up the weight, without moving from the place. And if the weight be large, ſeveral perſons may pull together at F, to raiſe the weight up; where in many caſes they cannot come to it, to raiſe it by ſtrength.

PROP. L.

In a combination of pullies, all drawn by one rope going over all the pullies; if the power P *is to the weight* W; *as* 1 *to the number of the parts of the rope proceeding from the movable block and pullies. Then the power and weight will be in equilibrio.* 40.

Let the rope go from the power about the pullies in this order, *ntovrs*, where the laſt part *s* is fixed to the lower block B. Now (Ax. 13.) all the parts of the rope *ntovrs* are equally ſtretched, and therefore each of them bears an equal weight; but the part *n* bears the power P, which goes to the fixed block A. All the other parts, ſuſtain the weight and movable block B, each with a force equal to P. Therefore P is to the ſum of all the forces, ſuſtained by *o*, *r*, *s*, *t*, *v*, or the weight W, as 1 to the number of theſe ropes immediately communicating with the movable block B. And all the ropes having an equal tenſion, none of

Fig. 40. them can move the reſt, but they muſt remain in equilibrio.

And if you take away the power at P, and apply a force at the rope *t* equal to P, to pull upwards in direction *t*A; this will make no alteration, for the rope *t* draws from the movable block with the ſame force as before, and therefore the weight is ſuſtained as before; for the upper pulley (by Prop. XLIX. Cor.) which the rope *nt* goes over, ſerves only to change the direction. And therefore as there are the ſame number of ropes ſtill drawing from the movable block as before; the propoſition holds good alſo in this reſpect. And it would be the ſame thing if the rope *s* was fixed to the weight W inſtead of the block B; but had it been fixed to the block A, there muſt have been a pulley more below, and a rope more, which would have increaſed the power, according to the propoſition.

Cor. 1. *Hence it appears to be a diſadvantage to the power to pull againſt the fixed block.*

For the rope *n* has no more purchaſe, or no more effect than the rope *t* has which draws againſt the movable block; and therefore when one draws by the rope *n*, there muſt be a pulley more, which will create more friction.

Cor. 2. *Hence one may explain the effects of all ſorts of machines compoſed of pullies; or find out ſuch a conſtruction or combination of them as to anſwer any purpoſe deſired. And to find its force, begin at the power, and call it* 1; *then all parts of the running rope that go and return about ſeveral pullies, muſt be each numbered alike. And any rope that acts againſt ſeveral others muſt be numbered with the ſum of theſe. And ſo on to the weight.*

For

Fig. 41. *For example*; ſuppoſe a man wanted to draw himſelf up to the top of a houſe or a church. Get a pulley A fixed at the top, and place another B at the bottom. Let a rope be fixed to the upper block A, and brought down about the pulley B, and then put round the upper pulley, and ſo brought to the ground at H. Then if a croſs ſtick CD be faſtened to the block B by a rope; a man may get aſtride of the ſtick, and then draw himſelf up by the rope H. And the power to draw himſelf up, will be little more than $\frac{1}{3}$ of his weight. For the power at H, and the two parts of the rope going about the pulley B, ſuſtain all his weight; and each of them ſuſtains one third of it.

If inſtead of the ſtick CD, he takes a chair to ſit in; then when he has drawn himſelf up to any hight he pleaſes, he may fix the rope H to the chair, and then do any ſort of buſineſs, as ſet up a dial, point the walls, and ſuch like, as is commonly done.

42. Again, ſeveral tackles are uſed aboard a ſhip, for hoiſting goods and the like. Let A, B be two blocks with pullies, the upper one being fixed, and let a weight W be ſuſpended at the ſingle pulley and rope, one end of the rope being fixed at F, and the other faſtened to the movable block B. This pulley and rope BCF is called a *Runner*. Let the power be at P, call it 1; then all the ropes going from B to A, muſt be each of them 1, and the rope going from the block B, acting againſt theſe four muſt be marked 4, and the other part of it CF muſt alſo be 4. Laſtly, the weight acting againſt theſe two, muſt be 8. And then the power P is to the weight W, as 1 to 8.

43. ABCD is another tackle with a runner BAD, A being a fixed pulley; the two blocks B, C, are both movable. The rope DAB is fixed to the weight

Fig. 43. weight at D, and to the block B. The rope PB goes and returns about the pullies BC, and at laſt is faſtened to the block C. Let P be the power, mark it 1, then the other parts of the rope between the blocks, muſt alſo be 1 apiece. Then CI acting againſt 3, muſt be 3. And AB is 4, as it acts againſt 4; likewiſe AD muſt be 4. Therefore the whole force that ſuſtains the weight W is 3 and 4, or 7. And the power to the weight as 1 to 7.

44. The following is a ſort of *Spaniſh burton*, A and F are two fixed pullies; C and B two movable ones. The rope going from the power P, goes round C, B, and A, and is faſtened to the block B. Another rope is faſtened to the block B, and goes over the pulley F, and is fixed to the block C. Then marking the power P, 1. Then each part of the rope, continued over C, B, and A to B again muſt be each 1. Then FC muſt be 2, as it acts againſt two parts; and likewiſe the other part of it FB muſt be 2. Then the whole that lifts the weight W, is $1 + 1 + 1 + 2 = 5$. And therefore the power is to the weight as 1 to 5.

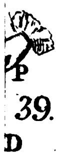
The friction between the pullies and blocks is ſometimes conſiderable. To remedy which, they muſt be as large as they can conveniently be made, and kept oiled or greaſed.

PROP. LI.

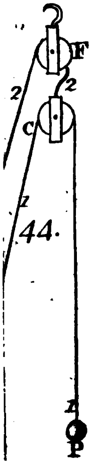
45. *In the ſcrew, if the power applied at E, be to the weight, preſſure, &c. at B; as the diſtance of two threads of the ſcrew, taken parallel to the axis of it, is to the circumference deſcribed by the power at E; then the weight and power will be in equilibrio.*

A ſcrew is an inſtrument conſiſting of two parts AB, CD, fitting into one another. AB is the male ſcrew, called the top or ſpindle; this is a long cylindrical body, having its ſurface cut into ridges

and



39.



44.

III. pa. 74.

Fig. 45.

and hollows, that run round it in a ſpiral manner from one end to the other, at equal diſtances; theſe riſings are called threads, and ſo many revolutions as they make, ſo many threads the ſcrew contains. CD is the female ſcrew, or the plate, thro' which the other goes; its concavity is cut in the ſame manner as the male, ſo that the ridges of the male may exactly fit the hollows of the female. By reaſon of the winding of the threads, as the handle EF is turned one way or the other, the male AB goes further in or comes further out, of the female.

Let the point E of the handle, make one revolution; then the male AB will have advanced the diſtance between one thread and another, of the ſcrew. Therefore if G repreſent any weight, which the end B acts againſt, it will be moved thro' the breadth of a thread, whilſt the power moves thro' a circumference whoſe radius is EA. Therefore the velocity of G is, to the velocity of E, as the breadth of a thread, to the circumference deſcribed by E; that is (by ſuppoſition) as the power at E, to the weight at G. Therefore E × velocity of E = G × velocity of G; and therefore their motions being equal, they will be in equilibrio.

Cor. *By reaſon of the friction, if any weight is to be removed by a ſcrew; the power muſt be to the weight; at leaſt as the breadth of two threads of the ſcrew, to the circumference deſcribed by the power; to keep the weight in equilibrio; and muſt be much more to move it.*

For in the ſcrew there is ſo much friction, that it will ſuſtain the weight when the power is taken away. And therefore the friction is as great or greater than the power. And therefore the whole power applied muſt at leaſt be doubled to produce any motion.

Fig.

PROP. LII.

In the endleſs ſcrew, where the teeth of the worm or ſpindle AB, *drives the wheel* CD, *by acting againſt the teeth of it. If the power applied at* P, *is to the weight* W, *acting upon the edge of the wheel at* C : : *as the diſtance of two threads or teeth, between fore ſide and fore ſide, taken along* AB; *is to the circumference deſcribed by the power* P. *Then the weight and power will be in equilibrio.* 46.

The *endleſs* or *perpetual ſcrew* is one that turns perpetually round the axis AB; and whoſe teeth fit exactly into the teeth of the wheel CD, which are cut obliquely to anſwer them: So that as AB turns round, its teeth take hold of the teeth of the wheel CD, and turns it about the axis I, and raiſes the weight W.

For by one revolution of the power at P, the wheel will be drawn forward one tooth; and the weight W will be raiſed the ſame diſtance. Therefore the velocity of the power, will be to that of the weight; as that circumference, to one tooth : : that is (by ſuppoſition) as the weight W, to the power P. Therefore the power P × velocity of P = W × velocity of W; therefore their motions being equal, they will be in equilibrio.

Cor. *If a weight* N *be ſuſpended at* E *on the axle* EF; *then if the power* P, *is to the weight* N : : *as the breadth of a tooth* × EF, *to the circumference deſcribed by* P × CD. *They will be in equilibrio.*

Or if the power P; *is to the weight* N : : *as radius of the axle* EI, *to the radius of the handle* FP × *by the number of teeth in* CD; *they will be in equilibrio.*

For

rallel to BF, BE; then all the ſides of the parallelogram BEGF are equal. The triangles EGB, ADC are ſimilar; for draw EOF which will be perp. to AB; then the right angled triangles AEB, AEO, are ſimilar, and the angle ABE = AEO = ACB; that is, GBE = ACD, and likewiſe BGE = ADC, whence CAD = BEG. Fig. 48.

Now let BG be the force acting at B, in direction BA, perp. to CD; then (Prop. IX.) the forces againſt the ſides AC, AD, will be in the directions EB, FB; and therefore EB, EG will repreſent theſe forces (by Prop. VIII.), when they keep one another in equilibrio. Therefore force BG applied to the back of the wedge, is to the force BE, perp. to the ſide AC; as BG to BE; that is, (by ſimilar triangles) as CD to CA.

Cor. 1. *The power acting againſt the back at* B, *is to that part of the force againſt* AC, *which acts parallel to the back* CD; *as the back* CD, *is to the hight* AB.

For divide the whole force BE into the two BO, OE; the part EO acts parallel to CD; therefore the force acting at B, is to the force in direction OE or BC; as BG to OE; that is, (by ſimilar triangles) as CD to AB.

Cor. 2. *By reaſon of the great friction of the wedge, the power at* B, *muſt be to the reſiſtance againſt one ſide* AC; *at leaſt as twice the baſe* CD, *to the ſide* AC, *taking the reſiſtance perp. to* AC. *Or as twice the baſe* CD, *to the hight* AB, *for the reſiſtance parallel to the baſe* CD; *to overcome the reſiſtance. But the power muſt be doubled for the reſiſtance againſt both ſides.*

For ſince the wedge retains any poſition it is driven into; therefore the friction muſt be at leaſt equal to the power that drives it.

Cor.

ments with a ſharp point, as nails, bodkins, needles, pins; and all inſtruments to cleave, cut, ſlit, chop, pierce, bore, and the like. And in general all inſtruments that have an edge or point. Fig. 48.

This Prop. is the ſame as Prop. XXX. in my large book of Mechanics, but demonſtrated after a different way; and both come to the ſame thing, which evinces the truth thereof.

In this Prop. I have ſhewn under what circumſtance, the wedge is in equilibrio; and that is, when the power is to the force againſt either ſide; as the back, is to that ſide. Therefore it muſt be very ſtrange, that any body ſhould underſtand it, as if I had ſaid, that the power is to the whole reſiſtance; as the back, is to one ſide only. They that do this muſt be blind or very careleſs.

Fig. 49. is at its utmoſt extent; then thoſe in the middle between F and E will have but half the tenſion, and thoſe at all other diſtances, will have a tenſion proportional to that diſtance. This being ſettled, let the utmoſt tenſion of nF be $= 1$; then the tenſions at n, o, p, &c. will be $\frac{En}{EF}$, $\frac{Eo}{EF}$, $\frac{Ep}{EF}$ &c. and the ſeveral forces, theſe exert againſt the point A, by means of the bended levers FEA, nEA, oEA, &c. will be $\frac{FE}{EA}$, $\frac{En^2}{EF \times EA}$, $\frac{Eo^2}{EF \times EA}$, $\frac{Ep^2}{EF \times EA}$ &c. and the ſum of all is $= \frac{1}{EF \times EA} \times$ into $EF^2 + En^2 + Eo^2 + Ep^2$ &c. to o. But (Arith. Inf. Prop. III.) the ſum of the progreſſion $EF^2 + En^2 + Eo^2$ &c. to o, is $\frac{1}{3} EF^3$. Therefore the ſum of all the forces exerted at A; that is, $P = \frac{1}{EF \times EA} \times \frac{1}{3} EF^3 = \frac{EF^2}{3EA}$. But $P = \frac{1}{2}$ weight E, therefore weight $E = \frac{2}{3} \times \frac{EF^2}{EA}$, when the beam breaks.

In like manner for any other depth Ep, the weight e that would break it is $= \frac{2Ep^2}{3EA}$. Whence the weight E to the weight e, is as EF^2 to Ep^2; that is, as the ſquares of the depths; for $\frac{2}{3EA}$ is a given quantity. Therefore the ſtrength of the beams, are as the ſquares of the depths.

Cor. 1. *Hence the ſtrengths of ſeveral pieces of the ſame timber, are to one another as the breadths and ſquares of the depths.*

For by this Prop. they are as the ſquares of the depths when the breadth is given. And if the breadth be increaſed in any proportion, it is evi-

AB is of. But it was ſhewn in the laſt Prop. that Fig. the preſſure at A, breaks the fibres Fn, no, op, &c. 49. by means of the bended levers AEF, AEn, AEo, &c. But (by Prop. XLV.) when the lengths EF, En, Eo, &c. are given, and the power at A alſo given; the effect at F, n, o, &c. is ſo much greater, as the arm AE is longer; that is, the ſtreſs at the ſection EF, is proportional to the diſtance AE, or to the length of the beam AB.

Cor. 1. *If* AF *be a beam ſticking out of a wall, and a weight* W *hung at the end of it. The ſtreſs it ſuffers by the weight, at any point* G, *will be as the diſtance* AG. 50.

For this has the ſame effect, as in the caſe of this Prop. only turning the beam upſide down. Or thus, ſuppoſe AHG to be a bended lever, whoſe fulcrum is H; then ſince GH is given, and the weight W; therefore by the power of the lever, the longer AH is, the more force is applied at G, or any other points, in GH, to ſeparate the parts of the wood; and therefore the ſtreſs is as AG.

Cor. 2. *Therefore, inſtead of a weight, if any force be applied at the end* A, *of the lever* AF; *the ſtreſs at any part* G, *will be as the force, and diſtance* AG.

For augmenting the force, the ſtreſs is increaſed in the ſame ratio.

Cor. 3. *Hence alſo if any weight lie upon the middle of a horizontal beam; the ſtreſs there will be as the weight and length of the beam.* 49.

For if the weight be increaſed, the ſtreſs will be increaſed proportionally, all other circumſtances remaining the ſame.

Cor. 4. *The ſtreſs of beams by their own weight, will be as the ſquares of the lengths.*

For here the weight is as the length.

Fig.

PROP. LVI.

51. *If* AB *be a beam of timber whoſe length is given; and ſupported at the ends* A *and* B; *and if a given weight* W *be placed at any point of it* G. *The ſtreſs of the beam at* G, *will be as the rectangle* AGB.

Let the given weight be W, then (Cor. 3. Prop. XLV.) the weight W is equal to the preſſure at both A and B. And (Cor. 2. Prop. XXXI.) preſſure at A : preſſure at B : : BG : AG, and preſſ. A : preſ. A + preſ. B : : BG : BG + AG; that is, preſ. A : weight W : : BG : AB, therefore preſſure at A $= \frac{BG}{AB}W$, and this is the force re-acting at A. But (Prop. LV. Cor. 2.) the ſtreſs at G by this force acting at the diſtance AG, is as the force multiplied by AG; that is, as $\frac{AG \times BG}{AB} \times W$. But W and AB are given, and therefore the ſtreſs at G is as AG × GB.

Cor. 1. *The greateſt ſtreſs of a beam is when the weight lies in the middle.*

For the greateſt rectangle of the parts, is in that point.

Cor. 2. *The ſtreſs at any point* P *by a weight at* G; *is equal to the ſtreſs at* G, *by the ſame weight at* P.

For when the weight is at W, the ſtreſs at G is AG × GB, and the ſtreſs at P $= \frac{BP}{BG} \times$ the ſtreſs at G $= \frac{BP}{BG} \times AG \times GB = BP \times AG$. Again, when the weight is at P, the ſtreſs at P is AP × PB; and the ſtreſs at G $= \frac{AG}{AP} \times$ laſt ſtreſs $= \frac{AG}{AP} \times AP \times PB = AG \times PB$, the ſame as before.

PROP.

PROP. LVII.

If the diſtance of the walls AD *and* BC *be given, and* AB, AC *be two beams of timber of equal thickneſs; the one horizontal, the other inclined. And if two equal weights* P, Q, *be ſuſpended in the middle of them; the ſtreſs is equal in both, and the one will as ſoon break as the other, by theſe equal weights.* 52.

For (Prop. XIV.) AC : AB : : weight P : $\frac{AB}{AC}$ P = preſſure againſt the plane, or the part of the weight the beam AC ſuſtains. And (Cor. 3. Prop. LV.) the ſtreſs upon AC is $\frac{AB}{AC}$ P × AC or AB × P; and the ſtreſs on AB is Q × AB, which is equal to AB × P, becauſe the weights P, Q are equal. Therefore, the ſtreſs being the ſame, and the beams being of equal thickneſs, one will bear as much as the other, and they will both break together.

Cor. 1. *If the beams be loaded with weights in any other places in the ſame perpendicular line as* F, G; *they will bear equal ſtreſs, and one will as ſoon break as the other.*

For they are cut into parts ſimilar to one another; and therefore ſtreſs at F : ſtreſs by P : : AFC : $\frac{1}{4}$ AC^2 : : AGB : $\frac{AB^2}{4}$: : ſtreſs by B : ſtreſs by Q or ſtreſs by P. Therefore ſtreſs at F = ſtreſs at B.

Cor. 2. *If the two beams be loaded in proportion to their lengths; the ſtreſs by theſe weights, or by their own weights, will be as their lengths; and therefore the longer, that ſtands aſlope, will ſooner break.*

Fig. 52. For the ſtreſs upon AC was AB × P, and the ſtreſs on AB was AB × Q; but ſince P and Q are to one another as AC and AB, therefore the ſtreſs on AC and AB will be as AB × AC and AB × AB; that is, as AC to AB. And in regard to their own weights, theſe are alſo proportional to their lengths.

PROP. LVIII.

53. *Let* AB, AC, *be two beams of timber of equal length and thickneſs, the one horizontal the other ſet ſloping. And if* CD *be perp. to* AB, *and they be loaded in the middle with two weights* P, Q, *which are to one another as* AC *to* AD. *Then the ſtreſs will be equal in both, and one will as ſoon break as the other.*

For (Prop. XIV.) $AC : AD :: P : \frac{AD}{AC} P =$ preſſure of P in the middle of AC. And by ſuppoſition, $AC : AD :: P : Q$; therefore $\frac{AD}{AC} P = Q$, the weight in the middle of AB. Therefore the forces in the middle of the two beams are the ſame; and the lengths of the beams being the ſame, therefore (Prop. LV.) the ſtreſs is equal upon both of them; and being of equal thickneſs, if one breaks the other will break.

Cor. *If the weights* P, Q, *be equal upon the two equal beams* AB, AC. *The ſtreſs upon* AB *will be to the ſtreſs upon* AC, *as* AB *or* AC *to* AD. *The ſame holds in regard to their own weights.*

For the weight Q is increaſed in that proportion.

SCHOLIUM.

Many more propoſitions relating to the ſtrength of timber might be inſerted; as for example, if a weight was diſpoſed equally thro' the length of Fig. the beam AB (fig. 51.), ſupported at both ends; 53. the ſtreſs in any point G, is as the rectangle AGB. And the ſtreſs at any point G is but half of the ſtreſs it would ſuffer, if the whole weight was ſuſpended at G. Alſo if AF (fig. 50.) be a beam fixed in a wall at one end, and a weight be diſperſed uniformly thro' all the length of it. The ſtreſs at any point G, with that weight (or with its own weight, if it be all of a thickneſs), will be as AG ſquare, the ſquare of the diſtance from the end. And the ſtreſs at any point G by a weight ſuſpended at A, will be double the ſtreſs at the ſame point G, when the ſame weight is diſperſed uniformly thro' the part AG. They that would ſee theſe and ſuch like things demonſtrated, may conſult my large book of Mechanics, to which I refer the reader.

PROP. LIX.

If ſeveral pieces of timber be applied to any mechanical uſe where ſtrength is required; not only the parts of the ſame piece, but the ſeveral pieces in regard to one another, ought to be ſo adjuſted for bigneſs; that the ſtrength may be always proportional to the ſtreſs they are to endure.

This Prop. is the foundation of all good Mechaniſm, and ought to be regarded in all ſorts of tools and inſtruments we work with, as well as in the ſeveral parts of any engine. For who that is wiſe, will overload himſelf with his work tools, or make them bigger and heavier than the work requires? neither ought they to be ſo ſlender as not to be able to perform their office. In all engines, it muſt be conſidered what weight every beam is to carry, and proportion the ſtrength accordingly. All le-

Fig. vers muſt be made ſtrongeſt at the place where they are ſtrained the moſt; in levers of the firſt kind, they muſt be ſtrongeſt at the ſupport. In thoſe of the ſecond kind, at the weight. In thoſe of the third kind, at the power, and diminiſh proportionally from that point. The axles of wheels and pullies, the teeth of wheels, which bear greater weights, or act with greater force, muſt be made ſtronger. And thoſe lighter, that have light work to do. Ropes muſt be ſo much ſtronger or weaker, as they have more or leſs tenſion. And in general, all the parts of a machine muſt have ſuch a degree of ſtrength as to be able to perform its office, and no more. For an exceſs of ſtrength in any part does no good, but adds unneceſſary weight to the machine, which clogs and retards its motion, and makes it languid and dead. And on the other hand, a defect of ſtrength where it is wanted, will be a means to make the engine fail in that part, and go to ruin. So neceſſary it is to adjuſt the ſtrength to the ſtreſs, that a good mechanic will never neglect it; but will contrive all the parts in due proportion, by which means they will laſt all alike, and the whole machine will be diſpoſed to fail all at once. And this will ever diſtinguiſh a good mechanic from a bad one, who either makes ſome parts ſo defective, imperfect and feeble as to fail very ſoon; or makes others, ſo ſtrong or clumſey, as to out laſt all the reſt.

From this general rule follows

Cor. 1. *In ſeveral pieces of timber of the ſame ſort, or in different parts of the ſame piece; the breadth multiplied by the ſquare of the depth, muſt be as the length multiplied by the weight to be born.*

For then the ſtrength will be as the ſtreſs.

Cor. 2. *The breadth mutiplied by the ſquare of the depth, and divided by the product of the length and weight, muſt be the ſame in all.*

Cor. 3. *Hence may be computed the ſtrength of timber proper for ſeveral uſes in building. As,*

1. To find the dimenſions of joiſts and boards for flooring. Let b, d, l be the breadth, depth and length of a joiſt, n = number of them, x = their diſtance, g = depth of a board, w = weight; then $nbdd$ = ſtrength of all the joiſts, and wl = ſtreſs on them, alſo $nlgg$ = ſtrength of the boards, and wx their ſtreſs; therefore $\frac{nbdd}{wl} = \frac{nlgg}{wx}$; and $x = \frac{llgg}{bdd}$, for the diſtance of the joiſts, or the length of a board between them. Or $b = \frac{llgg}{ddx}$, or $dd = \frac{llgg}{bx}$, and ſo on, according to what is wanted.

2. To find the dimenſions of ſquare timber for the roof of a houſe. Let r, s, l be the length of the ribs, ſpars and lats, ſo far as they bear; x, y, z their breadth or depth, n the diſtances of the lats, w = weight upon a rib, c = coſine of elevation of the roof. Then by reaſon of the inclined plane, $\frac{lw}{r} \times c$ = weight upon a ſpar. And $\frac{lnw}{rs}$ = weight upon a lat: for the ribs and lats lie horizontally. Therefore (Cor. 2.) $\frac{x^3}{wr} = \frac{y^3}{\frac{slw}{r} \times c} = \frac{z^3}{l \times \frac{lnw}{rs}}$. Whence $x^3 = \frac{rry^3}{cls}$, and $x^3 = \frac{rrsz^3}{lln}$. Hence if any one x, y, or z be given, and all the reſt of the quantities; the other two may be found. Or in general, any two being unknown, they may be found, from having the reſt given.

For example, let r = 9 feet, s = 4 feet, l = 15 inches, n = 11 inches, c = .707 the coſine of 45°, the pitch of the roof. And aſſume $y = 2\frac{1}{2}$

inches; then $x = 2\frac{1}{2}\sqrt[3]{\frac{81}{3.535}} = 7.1$ inches. And $z = y\sqrt[3]{\frac{ln}{css}} = 2\frac{1}{2}\sqrt[3]{\frac{55}{543}} = 1\frac{1}{6}$ inches.

54. 3. To find the curve ACB, into the form of which, if a joiſt be cut, on the upper or under ſide; and having the two ſides parallel planes, which are perp. to the horizon. That the ſaid joiſt ſhall be equally ſtrong every where to bear a given weight, ſuſpended on it.

Let the weight be placed in the ordinate CD; and the breadth of the beam, and the weight being given; then (Prop. LIV.) the ſtrength at C is as CD^2. And (Prop. LVI.) the ſtreſs is as ADB. Therefore that the ſtrength may be as the ſtreſs, CD^2 is as the rectangle ADB; and therefore the curve ACB is an ellipſis.

55. 4. To find the figure of a beam AB, fixed with one end in a wall, and having a given weight W ſuſpended at the other end B; and being every where of the ſame depth; it may be equally ſtrong throughout.

Let CD be the breadth at C; then (Prop. LIV.) the ſtrength is as CD. And (Cor. 1. Prop. LV.) the ſtreſs is as CB. Therefore CD is every where as CB, and therefore CDB is a plane triangle. And the beam is a priſm, whoſe upper and under ſides are parallel to the horizon.

56. 5. To find the figure of a beam AB, ſticking with one end in a wall, and of a given breadth; having a weight W ſuſpended at the end B; ſo that it may be equally ſtrong throughout.

Let CD be the depth at C. Then ſince the breadth is given, the ſtrength is as CD^2. And the ſtreſs as DB; therefore CD^2 is as DB. Whence CD is a common parabola.

57. 6. To find the figure of a beam AB, of the ſame breadth and depth, ſticking in a wall with one

Fig. 57. one end, and bearing a weight ſuſpended at the other end B; ſo that it may be equally ſtrong throughout.

Let CD be the thickneſs at O. Then the ſtrength is as CD^3, and the ſtreſs is as BO. Therefore BO is as CD^3 or as CO^3. And conſequently ACB is a cubic parabola, whoſe vertex is at B.

58. 7. In like manner, if CBD be a beam fixed with one end in a wall, and all the ſides of it be cut into the form of a concave parabola, whoſe vertex is at B. It will be equally ſtrong throughout for ſupporting its own weight.

For putting $BO = x$, $CO = y$, then by nature of the curve, $ay = xx$. But the ſolidity of CBD is $\frac{3.1416yyx}{5}$. And the center of gravity I, is diſtant $\frac{5}{6}x$ from B, therefore $OI = \frac{1}{6}x$. Now CD^3 or $8y^3 =$ ſtrength at O. And $CBD \times OI$ or $\frac{3.1416yyx}{5} \times \frac{1}{6}x =$ ſtreſs. Therefore the ſtrength : to the ſtreſs :: is as $8y^3 :$ to $\frac{3.1416y^2xx}{30} :: 8y : \frac{3.1416xx}{30} :: 8y : \frac{3.1416ay}{30} :: 340 : 3.1416a$, that is, in a given ratio. And as this happens every where, the ſolid is equally ſtrong in all parts.

I muſt take notice here that the 116th figure in my large book of Mechanics, is drawn wrong. It ſhould be concave inſtead of being convex.

59. 8. Again, if AB be the ſpire of a church which is a ſolid cone or pyramid; it will be equally ſtrong throughout for reſiſting the wind. For the quantity of wind falling on any part of it ACD, will be as the ſection ACD. Therefore let $AO = x$, $CD = y$. And $x = ay$, then the ſtrength at $O = y^3$, and if I be the center of gravity of ACD, then OI

PROP. LX.

In any machine contrived to raiſe great weights; if the power applied, be to the weight to be raiſed; as the velocity of the weight, to the velocity of the power; the power will only be in equilibrio with the weight. Therefore to raiſe it, the power muſt be ſo far increaſed, as to overcome all the friction and reſiſtance ariſing from the engine or otherwiſe; and then the power will be able to raiſe the weight.

A man would be much miſtaken, who ſhall make an engine to raiſe a great weight, and give his power no greater velocity, in regard to the velocity of the weight; than the quantity of the weight has in regard to the quantity of the power. For when he has done that, his weight and power will but have equal quantities of motion, and therefore they cannot ſet one another a moving, but muſt always remain at reſt. It is neceſſary then, that he do one of theſe two things. 1. That he apply a power greater than in that proportion, ſo much as to overcome all the friction and other accidental reſiſtance that may happen: and in ſome engines theſe are very great. Or 2. He muſt ſo continue his engine, that the velocity of the power, which ſuppoſe he has given, may be ſo much greater than the velocity of the weight; as the quantity of the weight, friction, and reſiſtance and all together, is greater than the power. This being done, the greater power will always overcome the leſſer, and his engine will work.

If a man does not attend to this rule, he will be guilty of many abſurd miſtakes, either in attempting things that are impoſſible, or in not applying means proper for the purpoſe Hence it is that engines contrived for mines and water-works ſo often or power applied to the firſt part, will cauſe it to act upon the ſecond with a new power, which would be deemed the weight, if the machine had no more parts. This new power acting on the ſecond part, will cauſe it to act upon the third part; and that upon a fourth, and ſo on till you come at the weight, which will be acted on, by all theſe mediums, juſt the ſame as by a ſimple machine whoſe power is equal to them all. Fig.

Cor. 1. *Hence a compound machine may be made, which ſhall have the ſame power, as any ſingle one propoſed.*

For if a lever is propoſed whoſe power is 100 to 1; two levers acting on one another will be equivalent to it, where the power of the firſt is as 10 to 1, and that of the ſecond alſo as 10 to 1, or the firſt 20 to 1, and the ſecond 5 to 1; or any two numbers, whoſe product is 100.

Again, a wheel and axle whoſe power is as 48 to 1, may be reſolved into two or more wheels with teeth, to have the ſame power; for example, make two wheels, ſo that the firſt wheel and pinion be as 8 to 1, and the ſecond as 6 to 1. They will have the ſame effect as the ſingle one. Or break it into three wheels, whoſe ſeveral powers may be 4 to 1, and 4 to 1, and 3 to 1.

If a ſimple combination of pullies be as 36 to 1; you may take three combinations to act upon one another, whoſe powers are 3 to 1, 3 to 1, and 4 to 1.

And after the ſame manner it is to be done in machines more compounded.

And this is generally done to ſave room. For when an engine is to have great power, it is hardly made of one wheel, it would be ſo large; but by breaking it into ſeveral wheels, after this manner; it will go into a little room, and have the

Fig. ſame power as the other. All the inconvenience is, it will have more friction; for the more parts acting upon one another, the more friction is made.

Cor. 2. *Hence alſo it follows, that in any compound machine, its power is to the weight, in the compound ratio of the power to the weight in all the ſimple machines that compoſe it.*

Cor. 3. *Hence it will be no difficult matter to contrive an engine that ſhall overcome any force or reſiſtance aſſigned.*

For if you have the quantity of power given, as well as of the weight or reſiſtance; it is but taking any ſimple machine as a lever, wheel, &c. ſo that the power may be to the weight in the ratio aſſigned, adding as much to the weight as you judge the friction will amount to. When this ſimple machine is obtained; break it or reſolve it into as many other ſimple ones as you think proper; ſo that they may have the ſame power.

And as to the ſeveral ſimple machines, it matters not what ſort they are of, as to the power; whether they be levers, wheels, pullies, or ſcrews; but ſome are more commodious than others for particular purpoſes; which a mechanic will find out beſt by practice. In general, a lever is the moſt ready and ſimple machine to raiſe a weight a ſmall diſtance; and for further diſtances, the wheel and axle, or a combination of pullies; or the perpetual ſcrew. Alſo theſe may be combined with one another; as a lever with a wheel or a ſcrew, the wheel and axle with pullies, pullies with pullies, and wheels with wheels, the perpetual ſcrew and the wheel. But in general a machine ſhould conſiſt of as few parts as is conſiſtent with the purpoſe it is deſigned for, upon account of leſſening the friction; and to make it ſtill leſs, the joints muſt be oiled or greaſed. All parts that act on one Fig. another muſt be poliſhed ſmooth. The axles or ſpindles of wheels muſt not ſhake in the holes, but run true and even. Likewiſe the larger a machine is, if it be well executed, the better and truer it will work. And large wheels and pullies, and ſmall axles or ſpindles have the leaſt friction.

The power applied to work the engine may be men or horſes; or it may be weight or a ſpring; or wind, water, or fire; of which one muſt take that which is moſt convenient and coſts the leaſt. Wind and water are beſt applied to work large engines, and ſuch as muſt be continually kept going. A man may act for a while againſt a reſiſtance of 50 pounds; and for a whole day againſt 30 pounds. A horſe is about as ſtrong as five men.

If two men work at a roller, the handles ought to be at right angles to one another.

When a machine is to go regular and uniform, a heavy wheel or fly muſt be applied to it.

SCHOLIUM.

Two things are required to make a good engineer. 1. A good invention for the ſimple and eaſy contrivance of a machine, and this is to be attained by practice and experience. 2. So much theory as to be able to compute the effect any engine will have; and this is to be learned from the principles of Mechanics.

PROP. LXII.

The friction or reſiſtance ariſing by a body moving upon any ſurface, is as the roughneſs of the ſurface, and nearly as the weight of the body; but is not much increaſed by the quantity of the ſurface of the moving body, and is ſomething greater with a greater velocity.

It is matter of experience that bodies meet with a great deal of reſiſtance by ſliding upon one another, Fig. ther, which cannot be entirely taken away, tho' the bodies be made never ſo ſmooth: yet by ſmoothing or poliſhing their ſurfaces, and taking off the roughneſs of them, this reſiſtance may be reduced to a ſmall matter. But many bodies, by their natural texture, are not capable of bearing a poliſh; and theſe will always have a conſiderable degree of reſiſtance or friction. And thoſe that can be poliſhed, will have ſome of this reſiſtance ariſing from the coheſion of their ſurfaces. But in general, the ſmoother or finer their ſurfaces, the leſs the friction will be.

As the ſurfaces of all bodies are in ſome degree rough and uneven, and ſubject to many inequalities; when one body is laid upon another, the prominent parts of one fall into the hollows of the other; ſo that the body cannot be moved forward, till the prominent parts of one be raiſed above the prominent parts of the other, which requires the more force to effect, as theſe parts are higher; that is, as the body is rougher. And this is ſimilar to drawing a body up an inclined plane, for theſe protuberances are nothing elſe but ſo many inclined planes, over which the body is to be drawn. And therefore the heavier the body, the more force is required to draw it over theſe eminencies; whence the friction will be nearly as the weight of the body.

But whilſt the roughneſs remains the ſame, or the prominent parts remain of the ſame hight, there will always be required the ſame force, to draw the ſame weight. And the increaſing of the ſurface, retaining the ſame weight, can add nothing to the reſiſtance on that account; but it will make ſome addition upon other accounts. For when one ſurface is dragged along another, ſome part of the reſiſtance ariſes from ſome parts of the moving ſurface, taking hold of the parts of the other, and tearing them off; and this is called *wearing*. And therefore this part of the friction is greater in a greater ſurface, in proportion to that ſurface. There is likewiſe in a greater ſurface, a greater force of coheſion, which ſtill adds ſomething to the friction. But the two parts of the friction, ariſing from the wearing and tenacity, are not increaſed by the velocity: but the other part, of drawing them over inclined planes, will increaſe with the velocity. So that in the whole, the friction is ſomething increaſed by the quantity of the ſurface, and by the velocity, but not much. But more in ſome bodies than others, according to their particular texture. Fig.

Cor. 1. *Hence there can be no certain rule, to eſtimate the friction of bodies; this is a matter that can only be decided by experiments. But it may be obſerved, that, ceteris paribus, hard bodies will have leſs reſiſtance than ſofter; and bodies oiled or greaſed, will have far leſs.*

For the particles of hard bodies, cannot ſo well take hold of one another to tear themſelves off. And when a ſurface is oiled, it is the ſame thing as if it run upon a great number of rollers or ſpheres.

Cor. 2. *Hence alſo a method appears of meaſuring the friction of a body ſliding upon another body, by help of an inclined plane.*

Take a plank CB of the ſame matter, raiſe it at one end C ſo high, till the body whoſe friction is ſought, being laid at C, ſhall juſt begin to move down the plane CB. Then the weight of the body, is to the friction as the baſe AB, to the hight AC of the plane. For the preſſure againſt the plane is the part of the weight that cauſes the friction, and the tendency down the plane is equal to the friction. And (Prop. XIV.) that preſſure is to the tendency as AB to AC. 69.

Fig. 60. If you puſh the body from C downward, and obſerve it to keep the ſame velocity thro' D to B; then you will have the friction for that velocity. If it increaſes its velocity, lower the end of the plank C; if it grows ſlower, raiſe the end C, till you get the body to have the ſame velocity quite thro' the plane. And ſo you will find what elevations are proper for each velocity; and from thence the ratio of AB to AC, or of the weight to the friction.

There is a way to make the experiment, by drawing the body along a horizontal plane, by weights hung at a ſtring, which goes over a pulley; but the method here deſcribed is more eaſy and ſimple.

SCHOLIUM.

From what has been before laid down, it will be eaſy to underſtand the nature of engines, and how to contrive one for any purpoſe aſſigned. And likewiſe having any engine before us, we can by the ſame rules, compute its powers and operations.

Engines are of various kinds; ſome are fixed in a particular place, where they are to act; as wind-mills and water-mills for corn, fire engines for drawing water, gins for coal pits, many ſorts of mills; pumps, cranes, &c. others are movable from one place to another, and may be carried to any place where they are wanted, as blocks, pullies and tackles for raiſing weights, the lifting jack, and lifting ſtock, clocks, watches, ſmall bellows, ſcales, ſteelyards, and an infinite number of others. Another ſort of engines are ſuch as are made on purpoſe to move from one place to another, ſuch as boats, ſhips, coaches, carriages, waggons, &c. If any of theſe are urged forward by the help of levers, wheels, &c. By having the acting power given, the moving force that drives it forward, is eaſily found by the properties of theſe machines. Only obſerve, if the firſt acting

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power be external, as wind, water, horſes, &c. Fig. you muſt not forget to add or ſubtract it, to or from the moving force before found; according as that firſt acting power conſpires with, or oppoſes the motion of the machine; and the reſult is the true force it is driven forward with. I have only room to deſcribe a very few engines, but thoſe that deſire it may ſee great variety in my large book of Mechanics.

A WHEEL CARRIAGE.

AB is a cart or carriage, going upon two wheels 61. as CD, and ſometimes upon four, as all waggons do. The advantages of wheel carriages is ſo great, that no body who has any great weight to carry, will make uſe of any other method. Was a great weight to be dragged along upon a ſledge or any ſuch machine without wheels, the friction would be ſo great, that a ſufficient force in many caſes could not be got to do it. But by applying wheels to carriages, the friction is almoſt all of it taken away. And this is occaſioned by the wheels turning round upon the ground, inſtead of dragging upon it. And the reaſon of the wheel's turning round is the reſiſtance the earth makes againſt it at O where it touches. For as the carriages goes along, the wheel meets with a reſiſtance at the bottom O, where it touches the ground; and meeting with none at the top at C, to balance it; that force at O muſt make it turn round in the order ODC, ſo that all the parts of the circumference of the wheel are ſucceſſively applied to the earth. In going down a ſteep bank it is often neceſſary to tie one wheel faſt, that it cannot turn round, this will make it drag; and by the great reſiſtance it meets with, ſtops the too violent motion, the carriage would otherwiſe have, in deſcending the hill.

Fig. 61. But altho' all ſorts of wheels very much diminiſh the friction; yet ſome have more than others; and it may be obſerved that great wheels, and ſmall axles have the leaſt friction. To make the friction as little as poſſible, ſome have applied friction wheels, which is thus; EG is the friction wheel running upon an axis I which is fixed in the piece of timber ES, which timber is fixed to the ſide of the carriage. KL is the axle of the carriage, which is fixed in the wheel CD, ſo that both turn round together. Then inſtead of the carriage lying upon the axle KL, the friction wheel FG lies upon the axle; ſo that when the wheel CD turns round, the axle cauſes the friction wheel, with the weight of the carriage upon it, to turn round the center I, which diminiſhes the friction in proportion to the radius IG: and there is the ſame contrivance for the wheel on the other ſide. But the wheel CD need not be fixed to the axle; for it may turn round on the axle KL, and alſo the axle turn round under the carriage.

In paſſing over any obſtacles, the large wheels have the advantage. For let MN be an obſtacle; then drawing the wheel over this obſtacle, is the ſame thing as drawing it up the inclined plane MP, which is a tangent to the point M; but the greater the wheel CD is, the leſs is that plane inclined to the horizon.

Likewiſe great wheels do not ſink ſo deep into the earth as ſmall ones, and conſequently require leſs force to pull them out again.

But there are diſadvantges in great wheels; for in the firſt place, they are more eaſily overturned; and ſecondly, they are not ſo eaſy to turn with, in a ſtrait road as ſmall wheels.

The tackle of any carriage ought to be ſo fixed, that the horſe may pull partly upwards, or lift, as well as pull forwards; for all hills and inequalities in the road, being like ſo many inclined planes, Fig. the weight is moſt eaſily drawn over them, when 61. the power draws at an equal elevation.

A carriage with four wheels is more advantageous, than one with two only, but they are bad to turn; and therefore are obliged to make uſe of ſmall fore-wheels. Broad wheels which are lately come into faſhion, are very advantageous, as they ſink but little into the earth. But there is a diſadvantage attends them, for they take up ſuch a quantity of dirt by their great breadth, as ſenſibly retards the carriage by its weight, and the like may be ſaid of their own weight.

The under ſide of the axle where the wheels are, muſt be in a right line; otherwiſe if they ſlant upwards, the weight of the carriage will cauſe them to work toward the end, and preſs againſt the runners and lin pin. And as the ends of the axle are conical, this cauſes the wheels to come nearer together at bottom, and be further diſtant at the top; by which means the carriage is ſooner overturned. To help this, the ends of the axle muſt be made as near a cylindrical form as poſſible, to get the wheels to fit, and to move free.

A HAND MILL.

Fig. 62. is a hand mill for grinding corn, A, B 62. the ſtones included in a wooden caſe. A the upper ſtone, being the living or moving ſtone. B the lower ſtone, or the dead ſtone, being fixed immovable. The upper ſtone is 5 inches thick, and a foot and three quarters broad; the lower ſtone is broader. C is a cog-wheel, with 16 or 18 cogs; DE its axis. F is a trundle with 9 rounds, fixed to the axis G, which axis is fixed to the upper ſtone A, by a piece of iron made on purpoſe. H is the hopper, into which the corn is put; I the ſhoe, to carry the corn by little and little thro' a hole at

Fig. 61. K, to fall between the two ſtones. L is the mill eye, being the place where the flour or meal comes out after it is ground. The under ſtone is ſupported by ſtrong beams not drawn here. And the ſpindle G ſtands on the beam MN, which lies upon the bearer O, and O lies upon a fixed beam at one end, and at the other end has a ſtring fixed, and tied to the pin P. The under ſtone is not flat, but riſes a little in the middle, and the upper one is a little hollow. The ſtones very near touch at the out ſide, but are wider towards the middle to let the corn go in.

When corn is to be ground, it is put into the hopper H, a little at a time, and a man turns the handle D, which carries round the cog-wheel C, and this carries about the trundle F, and axis G, and ſtone A. The axis G is angular at K; and as it goes round, it ſhakes the ſhoe I, and makes the corn fall gradually thro' the hole K. And the upper ſtone going round grinds it, and when ground it comes out at the mill eye L, where there is a ſack or tub placed to receive it. Another handle may be made at E like that at D, for two men to work, if any one pleaſes. In order to make the mill grind courſer or finer, the upper ſtone A may be lowered or raiſed, by means of the ſtring going from the bearer O; for turning round the pin P, the ſtring is lengthened or ſhortened, and thereby the timbers O, M are lowered or raiſed, and with them the axle G and ſtone A. For the ſpindle G goes thro' the ſtone B, and runs upon the beam MN. The ſpindle is made ſo cloſe and tight, by wood or leather, where it goes thro' the under ſtone, that no meal can fall thro'. The under ſide of the upper ſtone is cut into gutters in the manner repreſented at Q. It is a pity ſome ſuch like mills are not made at a cheap rate for the ſake of the poor, who are much diſtreſſed by the roguery of the millers.

Fig.

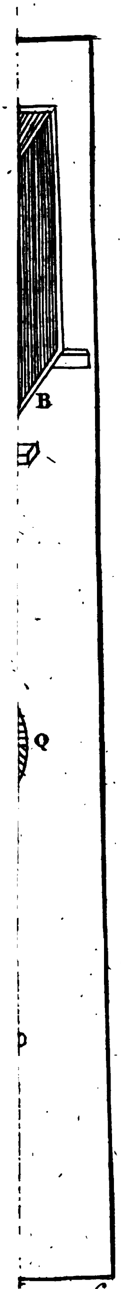

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Fig. 63. is a ſort of crane, BC an upright poſt, AB a beam fixed horizontally at top of it; theſe turn round together on the pivot C, and within the circle S, which is fixed to the top of the frame PQ. EF is a wooden roller, or rather a roller made of thin boards, for lightneſs, and all nailed to ſeveral circular pieces on the inſide. GH a wheel fixed to the roller, about which goes the rope GR. IK, LN, two other ropes; fixed with one end to the croſs piece AB, and the other end to the roller EF. W a weight equal to the weight of the wheel and roller, which is faſtened to a rope which goes over the pulley O, and then is faſtened to a collar V, which goes round the roller. ET is another rope with a hook at it to lift up any weight, the other end of the rope being fixed to the roller; here are in all five ropes. Fig. 63.

To raiſe any weight as M, hang it upon the hook T, then pulling at the rope R which goes about the wheel GH, this cauſes the wheel and roller to turn round, and the ropes IK, LN to wind about it, by which means the wheel and axle riſes; and by riſing, folds the rope TE about the roller the contrary way, and ſo raiſes the weight M. When the weight M is raiſed high enough, a man muſt take hold of the rope T with a hook, by which the whole machine may be drawn about, turning upon the centers C and S. And then the weight M may be let down again. The weight of the wheel and roller do not affect the power drawing at R, becauſe it is balanced by the weight W. There is no friction in this machine but what is occaſioned by the collar V, and the bending of the ropes. And the power is to the weight in this crane, as the diameter of the roller to the radius of the wheel GH.

Fig.

An ENGINE for raiſing WEIGHTS.

64. Fig. 64. is an engine compoſed of a perpetual ſcrew AB, and a wheel DE with teeth, and a ſingle pulley H. FG is an axle, about which a rope goes, which lifts the pulley and weight W. BC is the winch, to turn it round withal. As the ſpindle AB is turned about, the teeth of it takes the teeth of the wheel DE, and turns it about, together with the axle FG, which winds up the rope, and raiſes the pulley H, with the weight W. The power at C, is to the weight W, as diameter FG × by the breadth of one tooth, is to twice the diameter DE × circumference of the circle deſcribed by C.

A FULLING MILL.

65. Fig. 65. is a fulling mill. AB a great water wheel, carried about by a ſtream of water, coming from the trough C, and falling into the buckets D, D, D whoſe weight carries the wheel about; this is a breaſt mill, becauſe the water comes no higher than the middle or breaſt of the wheel; EF is its axis; I, I; K, K, two lifters going thro' the axle, which raiſe the ends G, G of the wooden mallets GH, GH, as the wheel goes about; and when the end G ſlips off the cog or lifter K or I, the mallet falls into the trough L, and each of the mallets makes two ſtrokes for one revolution of the wheel. The mallets move about the centers M, M. Theſe troughs L, L, contain the ſtuff which is to be milled, by the beating of the mallets. N, N, is a channel to carry the water, being juſt wide enough to let the wheel go round. And the wheel may be ſtopt, by turning the trough C aſide, which brings the water. In this engine more mallets may be uſed, and then more pins or lifters muſt be put thro' the axis EF.

Fig.

ra 208.

Fig. 66. is a common *Pocket Watch.* AA the *balance*, BB the *verge*; C, C, two *palats.* D the *crown wheel* acting againſt the palats C, C; E its pinion. F the *contrate wheel*, G its pinion. H the *third wheel*, I its pinion. K the ſecond wheel or *center wheel*, L its pinion. M the *great wheel*, N the *fuſee* turning round upon the ſpindle of M. O the *ſpring box*, having a ſpring included in it. PP the *chain* going round the ſpring box O, and the fuſee N. This work is within the watch between the two plates. Here the face is downward, and in the watch the wheel K is placed in the center, and the others round about it. Here I have placed them ſo as beſt to be ſeen, which ſignifies nothing to the motion. The balance AA is without the plate, covered by the cock X. The minute hand Q goes upon the axis of the wheel K. Fig. 66.

Then between the upper plate and the face, we have V the *cannon pinion* or *pinion of report.* Z the *dial wheel.* T the *minute wheel.* S the *pinion* or *nut*, fixed to it. The ſocket of the cannon pinion V goes into the ſocket of the wheel Z, and are movable about one another, and both go thro' the face; on the ſocket of the pinion Z is fixed the hour hand R; and on the ſocket of V is fixed the minute hand Q. Likewiſe the ſocket of V is hollow, and both go upon the arbour of the wheel K, which reaches thro' the face, and are faſtened there. The wheel and ſocket, T, S are hollow, and go upon a fixed axle on which they turn round.

When the chain PP is wound up, upon the fuſee N; the ſpring included in the box O, draws the chain PP, which forces about the wheel M, the fuſee being kept from ſlipping back, by a catch on purpoſe. Then M drives L and K, and K drives I, and H drives G, and F drives E, and the teeth of the crown wheel D, act againſt the palats C, C alternately, and cauſe the balance AA to vibrate

Fig. vibrate back and forward, and thus the watch is kept going.

66. The cannon pinion, and dial wheel V and Z, and the hands Q, R, being put upon the arbor of K at W; and faſtened there, by means of a ſhoulder which is upon the axis, and a braſs ſpring; as the wheel K goes round, it carries with it the pinion V with the minute hand, and V drives T together with S; and S drives Z with the hour hand.

The numbers of the wheels and pinions, (that is the teeth in them) are, M = 48, L = 12, K = 54, I = 6, H = 48, G = 6, F = 48, E = 6, D = 15, and 2 palats. The *train*, or number of beats in an hour, is 17280, which is about $4\frac{3}{4}$ beats in a ſecond. Alſo V = 10, Z = 36, S = 12, T = 40.

The wheel M goes round 6 times in 24 hours, therefore K goes round $\left(\frac{48}{12}\right)$ 4 times as much; that is, 24 times, or once in an hour, and the hand Q along with it; therefore Q will ſhew minutes. Then as V goes round once in an hour, T will go round $\left(\frac{10}{40}\right)$ $\frac{1}{4}$ of that, or $\frac{1}{4}$ the circumference; and as S goes $\frac{1}{4}$, Z will go $\left(\frac{12}{36}\right)$ $\frac{1}{3}$ of that, or $\frac{1}{12}$ of the circumference in an hour, and therefore as R goes along with it, R will ſhew the hours. The wheels and pinions T, Z, and S, V, are drawn with the face upwards. And the whole machine included in a caſe is but about two inches diameter. There is a ſpiral ſpring fixed under the balance AB, called the *regulator*, which gives it a regular motion; and likewiſe abundance of ſmall parts helpful to her motion, too long to be deſcribed here.

The way of writing down the numbers, is thus, Fig. 66.

48
12 — 54
6 — 48
6 — 48
6 — 15
2

10 Q
40 — 12
36 R.

Explanation. The wheel with 48 drives a pinion of 12, and a wheel of 54 on the ſame arbor. The wheel 54 drives the pinion 6 with the wheel 48 on the ſame arbor. The wheel 48 drives the pinion 6 and wheel 48 on the ſame arbor. The wheel 48 drives the pinion 6 and wheel 15 on the ſame arbor. And the wheel 15 drives the two palats.

Again the wheel 54 has the pinion 10 on its arbor, and the hand Q; and the pinion 10 drives the wheel 40, with the pinion 12. And the pinion 12 drives the wheel 36 with the hand R.

As this machine is moved by a ſpring, it is ſubject to very great inequalities of motion, occaſioned by heat and cold. For hot weather ſo relaxes, ſoftens, and weakens the main ſpring, that it loſes a great deal of its ſtrength, which cauſes the watch to loſe time and go too ſlow. On the other hand, cold froſty weather ſo affects the ſpring, and it is ſo condenſed and hardened, that it becomes far ſtronger; and by that means accelerates the motion of the watch, and makes her go faſter. The difference of motion in a watch, thus occaſioned by heat and cold, will often amount to an hour, and more in 24 hours. To remedy this, there is a piece of machinery, called the *Slide*, placed near the regulating ſpring; which being put forward or backward, ſhortens or lengthens the ſpring, ſo as to make her keep time truly.

Some people have been ſo ſilly as to think, that the greater ſtrength of a ſpring ariſes wholly from

Fig. from its being made ſhorter, as this happens to be one of the effects of cold. But it is eaſily demon-
67. ſtrated that this is not the cauſe. For let AB be a ſpring as it is dilated by heat, and *ab* the ſame ſpring contracted by cold. Now if the ſpring has been contracted in length, it muſt be proportionally contracted in all dimenſions. Let *l*, *b*, *d*, denote the length, breadth, and depth, in its cold, and leaſt dimenſions; and *rl*, *rb*, *rd*, the length, breadth, and depth, in its hot and greateſt dimenſions. Then (Prop. LIV.) the ſtrength of the longer, to the ſtrength of the ſhorter, will be as $\frac{rb \times rrdd}{rl}$ to $\frac{bdd}{l}$ (conſidering it weakened by the length), and that is as rr to 1, or as AB^2 to ab^2. So that the longer ſpring, upon account of its being affected with heat, is ſo far from being weaker, than the ſhorter affected with cold, that it is the ſtronger of the two. And therefore this difference is not to be aſcribed merely to the lengthning or ſhortning thereof; but muſt be owing to the nature, texture and conſtitution of the ſteel, as it is ſome way or other affected and changed by the heat and cold.

And that there is ſome change induced by the cold, into the very texture of the mettal, is evident from this, that all ſorts of tools made of iron or ſteel, as ſprings, knives, ſaws, nails, &c. very eaſily ſnap and break in cold froſty weather, which they will not do in hot weather. And that property of ſteel ſprings is the true cauſe, that theſe ſorts of movements can never go true.

66. To make a calculation of the different forces requiſite to make a watch gain or loſe any number of minutes, as ſuppoſe half an hour in 24; and I have often experienced it to be more. By Cor. 4. Prop. VI. the product of the force and ſquare of

the time, is as the product of the body and ſpace described, which here is a given quantity. For the matter of the balance remains the ſame in hot as cold weather; and ſo does the length of the ſwing, which here is the ſpace deſcribed. Therefore the force is reciprocally as the ſquare of the time of vibrating, or directly as the ſquare of the number of vibrations in 24 hours. Therefore the force with the warm ſpring, is to the force with the cold one; as the ſquare of 23 $\frac{1}{2}$ hours, to the ſquare of 24; that is, nearly as 23 to 24. So that if a ſpring was to contract half an inch in a foot in length, without altering its other dimenſions, it would but be ſufficient to account for that phænomenon; but this is forty times more than the lengthening and ſhortening by heat and cold, for that does not alter ſo much as a thouſandth part, as is plain from experiments. Fig. 66.

The caſe being thus, a clock or watch going by a ſpring, can never be made to keep time truly, except it be always kept to the ſame degree of heat or cold, which cannot be done without conſtant attendance. And if any ſort of mechaniſm be contrived to correct this; yet as ſuch a thing can only be made by gueſs, it cannot be truſted to at ſea, but only for ſhort voyages. But no motion however regular, can ever anſwer at ſea, where the irregular motion of the ſhip will continually diſturb it; add to this, that the ſmall compaſs a watch is contained in, makes it eaſier diſturbed, than a larger machine would be; but to ſuppoſe that any regular motion can ſubſiſt among ten thouſand irregular motions, and in ten thouſand different directions, is a moſt glaring abſurdity. And if any one with ſuch a machine would but make trial of it to the Eaſt Indies, he would find the abſurdity and diſappointment. And therefore I never expect to ſee ſuch a time keeper, or any ſuch thing as a watch or clock

Fig. going by a ſpring, to keep true time at ſea. But
66. time will diſcover all things.

As to pendulum clocks, their irregularity in the ſame latitude is owing to nothing but the lengthning or ſhortning of the pendulum; which is a mere trifle to the other. But then they would be infinitely more diſturbed at ſea, than a watch; and in a ſtorm could not go at all. In different latitudes too, another irregularity attends a pendulum, depending on the different forces of gravity. Tho' this amounts but to a ſmall matter, yet it makes a conſiderable variation, in a great length of time. For in ſouth latitudes, where the gravity is leſs, a clock loſes time. And in north latitudes, where the gravity is greater, it gains time. So that none of theſe machines are fit to meaſure time at ſea, altho' ten times ten thouſand pounds ſhould be given away for making them.

A DESCENDING CLOCK.

68. Fig. 68. is a clock deſcending down an inclined plane. This conſiſts of a train of watch work, contained between two circular plates AB, CD, 4 inches diameter, fixed together by a hoop an inch and half broad, incloſing all the work. The inner work conſiſts of 5 wheels, the ſame as in a watch, only there is a ſpur wheel inſtead of the contrate wheel, as 4; *b* is the balance, whoſe palats play in the teeth of the crown wheel 5. Here is no ſpring to give it motion, but inſtead thereof, the weight W is fixed to the wheel 1, and ſo adjuſted for weight, that it may balance the lower ſide, and hinder it from rolling down the plane. Now whilſt the weight W moves the wheel 1, this wheel by moving about, cauſes the weight W to deſcend, by which it ceaſes to be a balance for the oppoſite ſide, and therefore that ſide begins to deſcend,

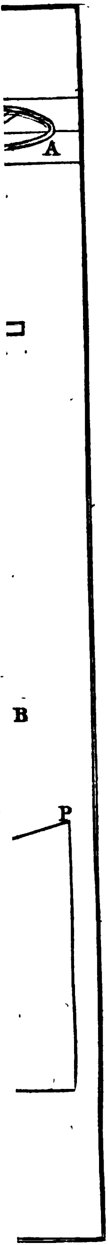
ſcend, till the weight W be raiſed high enough again to become a balance, which muſt be about the poſition it appears in the figure. Thus whilſt wheels move gradually about, the weight W deſcends gradually, which makes the body of the machine turn gradually round, and deſcend down the inclined plane PQ; making one revolution in 12 hours. And therefore to have her to go 24 or 30 hours; the length of the plane PQ muſt be 2 or 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ circumferences of the plates. Before the weight W is fixed to the wheel 1, ſome lead or braſs muſt be ſoldered on the ſide E oppoſite to the wheels 2, 3, 4, &c. for the wheel 1 muſt be in the center. And then the lead or braſs muſt be filed away till the center of gravity of the machine be in the center of the plates. And to hinder the machine from ſliding, the edges of the plates muſt be lightly indented. The inclined plane PQ may be a board, which muſt be elevated 10 or 12 degrees, but that is to be found by trials; for if ſhe go too ſlow the end P muſt be raiſed; but if too faſt it muſt be lowered. When the clock has gone the length of the board to Q, it muſt be ſet again at P. The fore ſide CD is divided into hours, and a pin is fixed in the center at G, on which the hand FGH, always hangs looſely in a perp. poſition, with the heavy end H downward. And the end F ſhews the hour of the day. So that the hours come to the hand, and not the hand to the hours. Fig. 68.

The board PQ muſt be be perfectly ſtreight from one end to the other, or elſe ſhe will go faſter in ſome places, and ſlower in others.

The circle with hours ought to be a narrow rim of braſs, movable round about, by the help of of one or more pins placed in it; ſo that it may be ſet to the true time.

Fig. 68. The weight W ſerves for two uſes, 1, to be a counterpoiſe to the ſide A; and 2, by its weight to put the clock in motion.

The weight W muſt be ſo heavy as to make the clock keep time, when it has a proper degree of elevation as 45 degrees; and then the board muſt have an elevation of 10 or 12 degrees. If ſhe go too faſt, with theſe poſitions, take ſome thing off the weight; if too ſlow, add ſomething to it.



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SECT. VI.

HYDROSTATICS *and* PNEUMATICS.

DEFINITION I.

A Fluid, is ſuch a body whoſe parts are eaſily moved among themſelves, and yield to any force acting againſt them.

DEF. II.

Hydroſtatics, is a ſcience that demonſtrates the properties of fluids.

DEF. III.

Hydraulics, is the art of raiſing water by engines.

DEF. IV.

Pneumatics, is that ſcience which ſhews the properties of the air.

DEF. V.

A fountain or *jet d'eau*, is an artificial ſpout of water.

PROP. LXIII.

If one part of a fluid be higher than another, the higher parts will continually deſcend to the lower places, and will not be at reſt, till the ſurface of it is quite level.

For the parts of a fluid being movable every way, if any part is above the reſt, it will deſcend by its own gravity as low as it can get. And afterwards other parts that are now become higher, Fig. will deſcend as the other did, till at laſt they will all be reduced to a level or horizontal plane.

Cor. 1. *Hence water that communicates by means of a channel or pipe, with other water; will ſettle at the ſame hight in both places.*

Cor. 2. *For the ſame reaſon, if a fluid gravitates towards a center; it will diſpoſe itſelf into a ſpherical figure, whoſe center is the center of force. As the ſea in reſpect of the earth.*

PROP. LXIV.

If a fluid be at reſt in a veſſel whoſe baſe is parallel to the horizon; equal parts of the baſe are equally preſſed by the fluid.

For upon every part of the baſe there is an equal column of the fluid ſupported by it. And as all theſe columns are of equal weight, they muſt preſs the baſe equally; or equal parts of the baſe will ſuſtain an equal preſſure.

Cor. 1. *All parts of the fluid preſs equally at the ſame depth.*

For imagine a plain drawn thro' the fluid parallel to the horizon. Then the preſſure will be the ſame in any part of that plane, and therefore the parts of the fluid at the ſame depth ſuſtain the ſame preſſure.

Cor. 2. *The preſſure of a fluid at any depth, is as the depth of the fluid.*

For the preſſure is as the weight, and the weight is as the hight of a column of the fluid.

PROP.

PROP. LXV.

If a fluid is compreſſed by its weight or otherwiſe; at any point it preſſes equally, in all manner of directions.

This ariſes from the nature of fluidity; which is, to yield to any force in any direction. If it cannot give way to any force applied, it will preſs againſt other parts of the fluid in direction of that force. And the preſſure in all directions with be the ſame. For if any one was leſs, the fluid would move that way, till the preſſure be equal every way.

Cor. *In any veſſel containing a fluid; the preſſure is the ſame againſt the bottom, as againſt the ſides, or even upwards, at the ſame depth.*

PROP. LXVI.

The preſſure of a fluid upon the baſe of the containing veſſel, is as the baſe, and perpendicular altitude; whatever be the figure of the veſſel that contains it. 69.

Let ABIC, EGKH be two veſſels. Then (Prop. LXIV. Cor. 2.) the preſſure upon an inch on the baſe AB = hight CD × 1 inch. And the preſſure upon an inch on the baſe HK is = hight FH × 1 inch. But (Prop. LXIV.) equal parts of the baſes are equally preſſed, therefore the preſſure on the baſe AB is CD × number of inches in AB; and preſſure on the baſe HK is FH × number of inches in HK. That is, the preſſure on AB is to the preſſure on HK; as baſe AB × hight CD, to the baſe HK × hight FH.

Cor. 1. *Hence if the hights be equal, the preſſures are as the baſes. And if both the hights and baſes be*

Fig. 69. *equal; the preſſures are equal in both; tho' their contents be never ſo different.*

For the reaſon that the wider veſſel EK, has no greater preſſure at the bottom, is, becauſe the oblique ſides EH, GK, take off part of the weight. And in the narrower veſſel CB, the ſides CA, IB, re-act againſt the preſſure of the water, which is all alike at the ſame depth; and by this re-action the preſſure is increaſed at the bottom, ſo as to become the ſame every where.

Cor. 2. *The preſſure againſt the baſe of any veſſel, is the ſame as of a cylinder of an equal baſe and hight.*

70. Cor. 3. *If there be a recurve tube* ABF, *in which are two different fluids* CD, EF. *Their hights in the two legs* CD, EF, *will be reciprocally as their ſpecific gravities, when they are at reſt.*

For if the fluid EF be twice or thrice as light as CD; it muſt have twice or thrice the hight, to have an equal preſſure, to counterbalance the other.

PROP. LXVII.

71. *If a body of the ſame ſpecific gravity of a fluid; be immerſed in it, it will reſt in any place of it. A body of greater denſity will ſink; and one of a leſs denſity will ſwim.*

Let A, B, C be three bodies; whereof A is lighter bulk for bulk than the fluid; B is equal; and C heavier. The body B, being of the ſame denſity, or equal in weight as ſo much of the fluid; it will preſs the fluid under it juſt as much as if the ſpace was filled with the fluid. The preſſure then will be the ſame all around it, as if the fluid was there, and conſequently there is no force to put it out of its place. But if the body be lighter, the preſſure of it downwards will be leſs than before; and leſs than in other places at the ſame depth; and conſequently the leſſer force will give way, and it will riſe to the top. And if the body be heavier, the preſſure downwards will be greater than before; and the greater preſſure will prevail and carry it to the bottom. Fig. 71.

Cor. 1. *Hence if ſeveral bodies of different ſpecific gravity be immerſed in a fluid; the heavieſt will get the loweſt.*

For the heavieſt are impelled with a greater force, and therefore will go faſteſt down.

Cor. 2. *A body immerſed in a fluid, loſes as much weight, as an equal quantity of the fluid weighs. And the fluid gains it.*

For if the body is of the ſame ſpecific gravity as the fluid; then it will loſe all its weight. And if it be lighter or heavier, there remains only the difference of the weights of the body and fluid, to move the body.

Cor. 3. *All bodies of equal magnitudes, loſe equal weights in the ſame fluid. And bodies of different magnitudes loſe weights proportional to the magnitudes.*

Cor. 4. *The weights loſt in different fluids, by immerging the ſame body therein, are as the ſpecific gravities of the fluids. And bodies of equal weight, loſe weights in the ſame fluid, reciprocally as the ſpecific gravities of the bodies.*

Cor. 5. *The weight of a body ſwimming in a fluid, is equal to the weight of as much of the fluid as the immerſed part of the body takes up.*

For the preſſure underneath the ſwimming bod is juſt the ſame as ſo much of the immerſed fluid and therefore the weights are the ſame.

C

Fig. Cor. 6. *Hence a body will ſink deeper in a lighter*
71. *fluid than in a heavier.*

Cor. 7. *Hence appears the reaſon why we do not feel the whole weight of an immerſed body, till it be drawn quite out of the water.*

PROP. LXVIII.

72. *If a fluid runs thro' a pipe, ſo as to leave no vacuities; the velocity of the fluid in different parts of it, will be reciprocally as the tranſverſe ſections, in theſe parts.*

Let AC, LB be the ſections at A and L. And let the part of the fluid $ACBL$ come to the place $acbl$. Then will the ſolid $ACBL$ = ſolid $acbl$; take away the part $acBL$ common to both; and we have $ACca = LBbl$. But in equal ſolids the baſes and hights are reciprocally proportional. But if Df be the axis of the pipe, the hights Dd, Ff, paſſed thro' in equal times, are as the velocities. Therefore, ſection AC : ſection LB : : velocity along Ff : velocity along Dd.

PROP. LXIX.

73. *If* AD *is a veſſel of water or any other fluid; B a hole in the bottom or ſide. Then if the veſſel be always kept full; in the time a heavy body falls thro' half the hight of the water above the hole* AB, *a cylinder of water will flow out of the hole, whoſe hight is* AB, *and baſe the area of the hole.*

The preſſure of the water againſt the hole B, by which the motion is generated, is equal to the weight of a column of water whoſe hight is AB, and baſe the area B (by Cor. 2. Prop. LXVI.). But equal forces generate equal motions; and ſince a

cylinder of water falling thro' $\frac{1}{2}$ AB by its gravity, Fig. 73.
acquires ſuch a motion, as to paſs thro' the whole hight AB in that time. Therefore in that time the water running out muſt acquire the ſame motion. And that the effluent water may have the ſame motion, a cylinder muſt run out whoſe length is AB; and then the ſpace deſcribed by the water in that time will alſo be AB, for that ſpace is the length of the cylinder run out. Therefore this is the quantity run out in that time.

Cor. 1. *The quantity run out in any time is equal to a cylinder or priſm, whoſe length is the ſpace deſcribed in that time by the velocity acquired by falling thro' half the hight, and whoſe baſe is the hole.*

For the length of the cylinder is as the time of running out.

Cor. 2. *The velocity a little without the hole, is greater than in the hole; and is nearly equal to the velocity of a body falling thro' the whole hight* AB.

For without the hole the ſtream is contracted by the water's converging from all ſides to the center of the hole. And this makes the velocity greater in about the ratio of 1 to $\sqrt{2}$.

Cor. 3. *The water ſpouts out with the ſame velocity, whether it be downwards, or ſideways, or upwards. And therefore if it be upwards, it aſcends nearly to the hight of the water above the hole.*

Cor. 4. *The velocities and likewiſe the quantities of the ſpouting water, at different depths; will be as the ſquare roots of the depths.*

SCHOLIUM.

74. From hence are derived the rules for the conſtruction of fountains or jets. Let ABC be a reſervoir of water, CDE a pipe coming from it, to bring

Fig. 74. bring water to the fountain which ſpouts up at E, to the hight EF, near to the level of the reſervoir AB. In order to have a fountain in perfection, the pipe CD muſt be wide, and covered with a thin plate at E with a hole in it, not above the fifth or ſixth part of the diameter of the pipe CD. And this pipe muſt be curve having no angles. If the reſervoir be 50 feet high, the diameter of the hole at E may be an inch, and the diameter of the pipe 6 inches. In general, the diameter of the hole E, ought to be as the ſquare root of the hight of the reſervoir. When the water runs thro' a great length of pipe, the jet will not riſe ſo high. A jet never riſes to the full hight of the reſervoir; in a 5 feet jet it wants an inch, and it falls ſhort by lengths which are as the ſquares of the hights; and ſmaller jets loſe more. No jet will riſe 300 feet high.

75. A ſmall fountain is eaſily made by taking a ſtrong bottle A, and filling it half full of water; cement a tube BI very cloſe in it, going near the bottom of the bottle. Then blow in at the top B, to compreſs the air within; and the water will ſpout out at B. If a fountain be placed in the ſunſhine and made to play, it will ſhew all the colours of the rainbow, if a black cloth be placed beyond it.

A jet goes higher if it is not exactly perpendicular; for then the upper part of the jet falls to one ſide without reſiſting the column below. The reſiſtance of the air will alſo deſtroy a deal of its motion, and hinder it from riſing to the hight of the reſervoir. Alſo the friction of the tube or pipe of conduct has a great ſhare in retarding the motion.

78. If there be an upright veſſel as AF full of water, and ſeveral holes be made in the ſide as B, C, D: then the diſtances, the water will ſpout, upon the horizontal plane EL, will be as the ſquare roots of the rectangles of the ſegments, ABE, ACE, and ADE. For the ſpaces will be as the

velocities

Fig. 78. velocities and times. But (Cor. 4.) the velocity of the water flowing out of B, will be as $\sqrt{AB}$, and the time of its moving (which is the ſame as the time of its fall) will be (by Prop. XIII.) as $\sqrt{BE}$; therefore the diſtance EH is as $\sqrt{AB \times BE}$; and the ſpace EL as $\sqrt{ACE}$. And hence if two holes are made equidiſtant from top and bottom, they will project the water to the ſame diſtance, for if AB = DE, then ABE = ADE, which makes EH the ſame for both, and hence alſo it follows, that the projection from the middle point C will be furtheſt; for ACE is the greateſt rectangle. Theſe are the proportions of the diſtances; but for the abſolute diſtances, it will be thus. The velocity thro' any hole B, will carry it thro' 2AB in the time of falling thro' AB; then to find how far it will move in the time of falling thro' BE. Since theſe times are as the ſquare roots of the hights, it will be, $\sqrt{AB} : 2AB :: \sqrt{BE} : EH = 2AB\sqrt{\frac{BE}{AB}} = 2\sqrt{ABE}$; and ſo the ſpace EL $= 2\sqrt{ACE}$. It is plain, theſe curves are parabolas. For the horizontal motion being uniform; EH will be as the time; that is, as $\sqrt{BE}$, or BE will be as EH^2, which is the property of a parabola.

76. If there be a broad veſſel ABDC full of water, and the top AB fits exactly into it; and if the ſmall pipe FE of a great length be ſoldered cloſe into the top, and if water be poured into the top of the pipe F, till it be full; it will raiſe a great weight laid upon the top, with the little quantity of water contained in the pipe; which weight will be nearly equal to a column of the fluid, whoſe baſe is the top AB; and hight, that of the pipe EF. For the preſſure of the water againſt the top AB, is equal to the weight of that column of wa-

ter,

Fig. ter, by Prop. LXV. and Cor. And Prop. L
76. Cor. 2.

But here the tube muſt not be too ſmall. in capillary tubes the attraction of the glaſs take off its gravity. If a very ſmall tube be merſed with one end in a veſſel of water, the ter will riſe in the tube above the ſurface of water; and the higher, the ſmaller the tube But in quickſilver, it deſcends in the tube below external ſurface, from the repulſion of the glaſs.

77. To explain the operation of a ſyphon, whic a crooked pipe CDE, to draw liquors off. Set ſyphon with the ends C, E, upwards, and fil with water at the end E till it run out at C; prevent it, clap the finger at C, and fill the ot end to the top, and ſtop that with the finger. Tl keeping both ends ſtopt, invert the ſhorter enc into a veſſel of water AB, and take off the finge and the water will run out at E, till it be as low C in the veſſel; provided the end E be alw lower than C. Since E is always below C, hight of the column of water DE is greater th that of CD, and therefore DE muſt out wei CD and deſcend, and CD will follow after, bei forced up by the preſſure of the air, which a upon the ſurface of the water in the veſſel AB.

The ſurface of the earth falls below the horizon level only an inch in 620 yards; and in other d tances the deſcents are as the ſquares of the diſtance

79. And to find the nature of the curve DCG, form ing the jet IDG. Let AK be the hight or top the reſervoir HF, and ſuppoſe the ſtream to aſcen without any friction, or reſiſtance. By the laws falling bodies the velocity in any place B, will as $\sqrt{AB}$. Put the ſemidiameter of the hole D = d, and AD = h. Then ſince the ſame w ter paſſes thro' the ſections at D and B; therefo (Prop. LXVIII.) the velocity will be reciprocall

as the ſection; whence $\sqrt{b} : \frac{1}{dd} :: \sqrt{AB} : \frac{1}{BC^2}$; Fig. 79. therefore $\frac{\sqrt{b}}{BC^2} = \frac{\sqrt{AB}}{dd}$, and $dd\sqrt{b} = BC^2\sqrt{AB}$, whence $AB \times BC^4 = bd^4$; which is a paraboliform figure whoſe aſſymptote is AK, for the nature of the cataractic curve DCG. And if the fluid was to deſcend thro' a hole, as IC; it would form itſelf into the ſame figure GCD in deſcending.

PROP. LXX.

The reſiſtance any body meets with in moving thro' a fluid is as the ſquare of the velocity.

For if any body moves with twice the velocity of another body equal to it, it will ſtrike againſt twice as much of the fluid, and with twice the velocity; and therefore has four times the reſiſtance; for that will be as the matter and velocity. And if it moves with thrice the velocity, it ſtrikes againſt thrice as much of the fluid in the ſame time, with thrice the velocity, and therefore has nine times the reſiſtance. And ſo on for all other velocities.

Cor. *If a ſtream of water whoſe diameter is given, ſtrike againſt an obſtacle at reſt; the force againſt it will be as the ſquare of the velocity of the ſtream.*

For the reaſon is the ſame; ſince with twice or thrice the velocity; twice or thrice as much of the fluid impinges upon it, in the ſame time.

PROP. LXXI.

The force of a ſtream of water againſt any plane obſtacle at reſt, is equal to the weight of a column of water, whoſe baſe is the ſection of the ſtream; and hight, the ſpace deſcended thro' by a falling body, to acquire that velocity.

For let there be a reſervoir whoſe hight is that ſpace fallen thro'. Then the water (by Cor. 2. Prop.

Fig. Prop. LXIX.) flowing out at the bottom of the reſervatory, has the ſame motion as the ſtream; but this is generated by the weight of that column of water, which is the force producing it. And that ſame motion is deſtroyed by the obſtacle, therefore the force againſt it is the very ſame: for there is required as much force to deſtroy as to generate any motion.

Cor. *The force of a ſtream of water flowing out at a hole in the bottom of a reſervatory, is equal to the weight of a column of the fluid of the ſame hight and whoſe baſe is the hole.*

PROP. LXXII. *Prob.*

To find the ſpecific gravity of ſolids or fluids.

1. *For a ſolid heavier than water.*

Weigh the body ſeparately, firſt out of water, and then ſuſpended in water. And divide the weight out of water by the difference of the weights, gives the ſpecific gravity; reckoning the ſpecific gravity of water 1.

For the difference of the weights is equal to the weight of as much water (by Cor. 2. Prop. LXVII.); and the weights of equal magnitudes, are as the ſpecific gravities; therefore the difference of theſe weights; is to the weight of the body; as the ſpecific gravity of water 1, to the ſpecific gravity of the body.

2. *For a body lighter than water.*

Take a piece of any heavy body, ſo big as being tied to the light body, it may ſink it in water. Weigh the heavy body in and out of water, and find the loſs of weight. Alſo weigh the compound both in and out of water, and find alſo the loſs of weight. Then divide the weight of the light body (out of water), by the difference of theſe loſſes, gives the ſpecific gravity; the ſpecific gravity of water being 1.

For the laſt loſs is = weight of water equal in magnitude to the compound.

And the firſt loſs is = weight of water equal in magnitude to the heavy body.

Whence the dif. loſſes is = weight of water equal in magnitude to the light body.

and the weights of equal magnitudes, being as the ſpecific gravities; therefore the difference of the loſſes, (or the weight of water equal to the light body) : weight of the light body : : ſpecific gravity of water 1 : ſpecific gravity of the light body.

3. *For a fluid of any ſort.*

Take a piece of a body whoſe ſpecific gravity you know; weigh it both in and out of the fluid; take the difference of the weights, and multiply it by the ſpecific gravity of the ſolid body, and divide the product by the weight of the body (out of water), for the ſpecific gravity of the fluid.

For the difference of the weights in and out of water, is the weight of ſo much of the fluid as equals the magnitude of the body. And the weight of equal magnitudes being as the ſpecific gravities; therefore, weight of the ſolid : difference of the weights (or the weight of ſo much of the fluid) : : ſpecific gravity of the ſolid : to the ſpecific gravity of the fluid.

Example.

I weighed a piece of lead ore, which was 124 grains; and in water it weighed 104 grains, the

Fig. difference is 20; then $\frac{124}{20} = 6.2$; the ſpecific gravity of the ore.

A table of ſpecific gravities.

Fine gold — — —	19.640
Standard gold — — —	18.888
Quickſilver — — —	14.000
Lead — — —	11.340
Fine ſilver — — —	11.092
Standard ſilver — — —	10.536
Copper — — —	9.000
Copper half-pence — —	8.915
Gun metal — — —	8.784
Fine braſs — — —	8.350
Caſt braſs — — —	8.100
Steel — — —	7.850
Iron — — —	7.644
Pewter — — —	7.471
Tin — — —	7.320
Caſt iron — — —	7.000
Lead ore — — —	6.200
Copper ore — — —	5.167
Lapis calaminaris — —	5.000
Load ſtone — — —	4.930
Antimony — — —	4.000
Diamond — — —	3.517
Iſland chriſtal — — —	2.720
Stone, hard — — —	2.700
Rock chriſtal — — —	2.650
Glaſs — — —	2.600
Flint — — —	2.570
Common ſtone — — —	2.500
Chriſtal — — —	2.210
Brick — — —	2.000
Earth — — —	1.984
Horn — — —	1.840

Ivory	1.820
Chalk,	1.793
Allum	1.714
Clay	1.712
Oil of vitriol	1.700
Honey	1.450
Lignum vitæ	1.327
Treacle	1.290
Pitch	1.150
Rozin	1.100
Mohogany	1.063
Amber	1.040
Urine	1.032
Milk	1.031
Brazil	1.031
Box	1.030
Sea water	1.030
Ale	1.028
Vinegar	1.026
Tar	1.015
Common clear water	1.000
Bee wax	.955
Butter	.940
Linſeed oil	.932
Brandy	.927
Sallad oil	.913
Logwood	.913
Ice	.908
Oak	.830
Aſh	.830
Elm	.820
Oil of turpentine	.810
Walnut tree	.650
Fir	.580
Cork	.238
New fallen ſnow	.086
Air	.0012

Fig. Cor. 1. *As the weight loſt in a fluid, is to the abſolute weight of the body; ſo is the ſpecific gravity of the fluid, to the ſpecific gravity of the body.*

Cor. 2. *Having the ſpecific gravity of a body, and the weight of it; the ſolidity may be found thus; multiply the weight in pounds by 62 $\frac{1}{2}$. They ſay as that product to 1; ſo is the weight of the body in pounds, to the content in feet. And having the content given, one may find the weight, by working backwards.*

For a cubic foot of water weighs 62 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. averdupoiſe; and therefore a cubic foot of the body weighs 62 $\frac{1}{2}$ × by the ſpecific gravity of the body. Whence the weight of the body, divided by that product, gives the number of feet in it. Or as 1, to that product; ſo is the content, to the weight.

SCHOLIUM.

80. The ſpecific gravities of bodies may be found with a pair of ſcales; ſuſpending the body in water, by a horſe hair. But there is an inſtrument for this purpoſe called the *Hydroſtatical Balance*, the conſtruction of which is thus. AB is the ſtand and pedeſtal, having at the top two cheeks of ſteel, on which the beam CD is ſuſpended, which is like the beam of a pair of ſcales, and muſt play freely, and be it ſelf exactly in equilibrio. To this belongs the glaſs bubble G, and the glaſs bucket H, and four other parts E, F, I, L. To theſe are loops faſtened to hang them by. And the weights of all theſe are ſo adjuſted, that E = F + the bubble in water, or = I + the bucket out of water, or = I + L + the bucket in water. Whence L = difference of the weights of the bucket in and out of water. And if you pleaſe you may have a weight K, ſo that K + bubble in water = bubble out of water; or elſe find it in

grains. The piece L has a ſlit in it to ſlip it upon the ſhank of I. Fig. 80.

It is plain the weight K = weight of water as big as the bubble, or a water bubble.

Then to find the ſpecific gravity of a ſolid.

Hang E at one end of the balance, and I and the bucket with the ſolid in it, at the other end; and find what weight is a balance to it.

Then ſlip L upon I, and immerge the bucket and ſolid in the water, and find again what weight balances it. Then the firſt weight divided by the difference of the weights, is the ſpecific gravity of the body; that of water being 1.

For fluids.

Hang E at one end, and F with the bubble at the other; plunge the bubble into the fluid in the veſſel MN. Then find the weight P which makes a balance. Then the ſpecific gravity of the fluid is $= \frac{K+P}{K}$, when P is laid on F; or $= \frac{K-P}{K}$, when P is laid on E.

For E being equal to I + the bucket; the firſt weight found for a balance, is the weight of the ſolid. Again, E being equal to I + L + the bucket in water; the weight to balance that, is the weight of the ſolid in water; and the difference, is = to the weight of as much water. Therefore (Cor. 1.) the firſt weight divided by that difference, is the ſpecific gravity of the body.

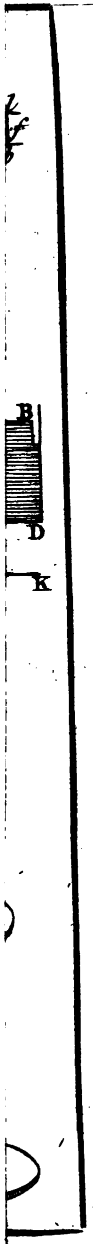
Again, ſince E is = to F + the bubble in water; therefore P is the difference of the weights, of the fluid and ſo much water; that is, P = difference of K and a fluid bubble; or P = fluid — K, when the fluid is heavier than water, or when P is laid on F. And therefore P = K — the fluid

Fig. bubble, when contrary. Whence the fluid bubble 80. $= K \pm P$, for a heavier or lighter fluid. And the ſpecific gravities being as the weights of theſe equal bubbles; ſpecific gravity of water : ſpecific gravity of the fluid : : K : $K \pm P$: : 1 : $\frac{K \pm P}{K}$ the ſpecific gravity of the fluid. Where if P be 0, it is the ſame as that of water.

PROP. LXXIII.

The air is a heavy body, and gravitates on all parts of the ſurface of the earth.

That the air is a fluid is very plain, as it yields to any the leaſt force that is impreſſed upon it, without making any ſenſible reſiſtance. But if it be moved briſkly, by ſome very thin and light body, as a fan, or by a pair of bellows, we become very ſenſible of its motion againſt our hands or face, and likewiſe by its impelling or blowing away any light bodies, that lie in the way of its motion. Therefore the air being capable of moving other bodies by its impulſe, muſt it ſelf be a body; and muſt therefore be heavy like all other bodies, in proportion to the matter it contains; and will conſequently preſs upon all bodies placed under it. And being a fluid, it will dilate and ſpread itſelf all over upon the earth: and like other fluids will gravitate upon, and preſs every where upon its ſurface. The gravity and preſſure of the air is alſo evident from experiments. For (fig. 70.) if water, &c. be put into the tube ABF, and the air be drawn out of the end F by an air-pump, the water will aſcend in the end F, and deſcend in the end A, by reaſon of the preſſure at A, which was taken off or diminiſhed at F. There are numberleſs experiments of th's ſort. And tho' theſe properties



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perties and effects are certain, yet the air is a fluid ſo very fine and ſubtle, as to be perfectly tranſparent, and quite inviſible to the eye. Fig. 70.

Cor. 1. *The air, like other fluids, will, by its weight and fluidity, inſinuate itſelf into all the cavities, and corners within the earth; and there preſs with ſo much greater force, as the places are deeper.*

Cor. 2. *Hence the atmoſphere, or the whole body of air ſurrounding the earth, gravitates upon the ſurfaces of all other bodies, whether ſolid or fluid, and that with a force proportional to its weight or quantity of matter.*

For this property it muſt have in common with all other fluids.

Cor. 3. *Hence the preſſure, at any depth of water, or other fluid, will be equal to the preſſure of the fluid together with the preſſure of the atmoſphere.*

Cor. 4. *Likewiſe all bodies, near the ſurface of the earth, loſe ſo much of their weight, as the ſame bulk of ſo much air weight. And conſequently, they are ſomething lighter than they would be in a vacuum. But being ſo very ſmall it is commonly neglected; tho' in ſtrictneſs, the true or abſolute weight is the weight in vacuo.*

PROP. LXXIV.

The air is an elaſtic fluid, or ſuch a one, as is capable of being condenſed or expanded. And it obſerves this law, that its denſity is proportional to the force that compreſſes it.

Theſe properties of the air, are proved by experiments, of which there are innumerable. If you take a ſyringe, and thruſt the handle inwards, you'll feel the included air act ſtrongly againſt your

Fig. hand; and the more you thruſt, the further the piſton goes in, but the more it reſiſts; and taking away your hand, the handle returns back to where it was at firſt. This proves its elaſticity, and alſo that air may be driven into a leſs ſpace, and condenſed.

75. Again, take a ſtrong bottle, and fill it half full of water, and cement a pipe BI, cloſe in it, going near the bottom; then inject air into the bottle thro' the pipe BI. Then the water will ſpout out at B, and form a jet; which proves, that the air is firſt condenſed, and then by its ſpring drives out the water, till it become of the ſame denſity as at firſt, and then the ſpouting ceaſes.

81. Likewiſe if a veſſel of glaſs AB be filled with water in the veſſel CD, and then drawn up with the bottom upwards; if any air is left in the top at A, the higher you pull it up, the more it expands; and the further the glaſs is thruſt down into the veſſel CD, the more the air is condenſed.

82. Again, take a crooked glaſs tube ABD open at the end A, and cloſe at D; pour in mercury to the hight BC, but no higher, and then the air in DC is in the ſame ſtate as the external air. Then pour in more mercury at A, and obſerve where it riſes to in both legs, as to G and H. Then you may always ſee that the higher the mercury is in the leg BH, the leſs the ſpace GD is, into which the air is driven. And if the hight of the mercury FH be ſuch as to equal the preſſure of the atmoſphere, then DG will be half DC; if it be twice the preſſure of the atmoſphere, DG will be $\frac{1}{3}$ DC, &c. So that the denſity is always as the weight or compreſſion. And here the part CD is ſuppoſed to be cylindrical.

Cor. 1. *The ſpace that any quantity of air takes up, is reciprocally as the force that compreſſes it.*

Cor. 2. *All the air near the earth is in a ſtate of compreſſion, by the weight of the incumbent atmoſphere.* Fig.

Cor. 3. *The air is denſer near the earth, or at the foot of a mountain, than at the top of it, and in high places. And the higher from the earth the more rare it is.*

Cor. 4. *The ſpring or elaſticity of the air is equal to the weight of the atmoſphere above it; and produces the ſame effects.*

For they always balance and ſuſtain each other.

Cor. 5. *Hence if the denſity of the air be increaſed; its ſpring or elaſticity will likewiſe be increaſed in the ſame proportion.*

Cor. 6. *From the gravity and preſſure of the atmoſphere, upon the ſurfaces of fluids, the fluids are made to riſe in any pipes or veſſels, when the preſſure within is taken off.*

PROP. LXXV.

The expanſion and elaſticity of the air is increaſed by heat, and decreaſed by cold. Or heat expands, and cold condenſes the air.

This is alſo matter of experience; for tie a bladder very cloſe with ſome air in it, and lay it before the fire, and it will viſibly diſtend the bladder; and burſt it if the heat is continued, and encreaſed high enough.

If a glaſs veſſel AB (Fig. 81.) with water in it, be turned upſide down, with a little air in the top A; and be placed in a veſſel of water, and hung over the fire, and any weight laid upon it to keep it down; as the water warms, the air in the top A, will by degrees expand, till it fills the glaſs, and by 81.

Fig. 81. by its elaſtic force; drive all the water out of the glaſs, and a good part of the air will follow, by continuing the veſſel there. Many more experiments may be produced proving the ſame thing.

PROP. LXXVI.

The air will preſs upon the ſurfaces of all fluids, with any force; without paſſing thro' them, or entering into them.

If this was not ſo, no machine, whoſe uſe or action depends upon the preſſure of the atmoſphere, could do its buſineſs. Thus the weight of the atmoſphere preſſes upon the ſurface of water, and forces it up into the barrel of a pump, without any air getting in, which would ſpoil its working. Likewiſe the preſſure of the atmoſphere keeps mercury ſuſpended at ſuch a hight, that its weight is equal to that preſſure; and yet it never forces itſelf thro' the mercury into the vacuum above, though it ſtand never ſo long. And whatever be the texture or conſtitution of that ſubtle inviſible fluid we call air, yet it is never found to paſs through any fluid, tho' it be made to preſs never ſo ſtrongly upon it. For tho' there be ſome air incloſed in the pores of almoſt all bodies, whether ſolid or fluid; yet the particles of air cannot by any force be made to paſs thro' the body of any fluid; or forced through the pores of it, although that force or preſſure be continued never ſo long. And this ſeems to argue that the particles of air are greater than the particles or pores of other fluids; or at leaſt are of a ſtructure quite different from any of them.

PROP. LXXVII.

The weight or preſſure of the atmoſphere, upon any baſe at the earth's ſurface; is equal to the weight of a column of mercury of the ſame baſe, and whoſe hight is from 28 to 31 inches, ſeldom more or leſs.

This is evident from the barometer, an inſtrument which ſhews the preſſure of the air; which at ſome ſeaſons ſtands at a hight of 28 inches, ſometimes at 29; and 30, or 31. The reaſon of this is not, becauſe there is at ſome times more air in the atmoſphere, than at others; but becauſe the air being an extremely ſubtle and elaſtic fluid, capable of being moved by any impreſſions, and many miles high; it is much diſturbed by winds, and by heat and cold; and being often in a tumultuous agitation; it happens to be accumulated in ſome places, and conſequently depreſſed in others; by which means it becomes denſer and heavier where it is higher, ſo as to raiſe the column of mercury to 30 or 31 inches. And where it is lower, it is rarer and lighter, ſo as only to raiſe it to 28 or 29 inches. And experience ſhews, that it ſeldom goes without the limits of 28 and 31.

Cor. 1. *The air in the ſame place does not always continue of the ſame weight; but is ſometimes heavier, and ſometimes lighter; but the mean weight of the atmoſphere, is that when the quickſilver ſtands at about* 29 $\frac{1}{2}$ *inches.*

Cor. 2. *Hence the preſſure of the atmoſphere upon a ſquare inch at the earth's ſurface, at a medium, is very near* 15 *pounds, averdupoiſe.*

For an inch of quickſilver weighs 8.102 ounces.

Cor. 3. *Hence alſo the weight or preſſure of the atmoſphere, in its lighteſt and heavieſt ſtate, is equal to the*

Fig. *the weight of a column of water, 32 or 36 feet high; or at a medium 34 feet.*

For water and quickſilver are in weight nearly as 1 to 14.

Cor. 4. *If the air was of the ſame denſity to the top of the atmoſphere, as it is at the earth; its hight would be about 5 $\frac{1}{3}$ miles at a medium.*

For the weight of air and water are nearly as 12 to 1000.

Cor. 5. *The denſity of the air in two places diſtant from each other but a few miles, on the earth's ſurface and in the ſame level; may be looked on to be the ſame, at the ſame time.*

Cor. 6. *The denſity of the air at two different altitudes in the ſame place, differing only by a few feet; may be looked on as the ſame.*

Cor. 7. *If the perpendicular hight of the top of a ſyphon from the water, be more than 34 feet, at a mean denſity of the air. The ſyphon cannot be made to run.*

For the weight of the water in the legs will be greater than the preſſure of the atmoſphere, and both columns will run down, till they be 34 feet high.

Cor. 8. *Hence alſo the quickſilver riſes higher in the barometer, at the bottom of a mountain than at the top. And at the bottom of a coal pit, than at the top of it.*

SCHOLIUM.

Hence the denſity of the air may be found at any hight from the earth, as in the following table.

Miles	denſity	Miles	denſity
$\frac{1}{4}$	.9564	10	.1700
$\frac{1}{2}$	.9146	20	.029 17
$\frac{3}{4}$	.8748	30	.005048
1	.8372	40	.000881
2	.7012	50	.000155
3	.5871	100	.0000000298
4	.4917		
5	.4119		

The firſt and third columns are the hight in miles from the ſurface of the earth. And the ſecond and fourth columns, ſhew the denſity at that hight; ſuppoſing the denſity at the ſurface of the earth, to be 1.

The denſity at any hight is eaſily calculated by this ſeries. Put r = radius of the earth, h = hight from the ſurface, both in feet. Then the denſity at the hight h, is the number belonging to the logarithm, denoted by this ſeries $-\frac{h}{68444} - \frac{h}{r}A - \frac{h}{r}B - \frac{h}{r}C$ &c. where A, B, C, &c. are the preceding terms. The terms here will be alternately negative and affirmative. But the firſt term alone is ſufficient when the hight is but a few miles.

By the weight and preſſure of the atmoſphere, the operations of pneumatic engines may be accounted for and explained. I ſhall juſt mention one or two.

A PUMP.

Fig. 83. is a *common pump*. AB the barrel or body of the pump, being a hollow cylinder, made of 83.

Fig. of wood or lead. CD the handle movable abo
83. the pin E. DF an iron rod moving about a p
D; this rod is hooked to the bucket or ſucker F
which moves up and down within the pump. T
bucket FG is hollow, and has a valve or clack
at the top opening upwards. H a plug fixed
the bottom of the barrel, being likewiſe hollo
and a valve at I opening alſo upwards. BK t
bottom going into the well at K; the pipe bel
B need not be large, being only to convey the w
ter out of the well into the body of the pum
The plug H muſt be fixed cloſe that no water c
get between it and the barrel; and the ſucker F
is to be armed with leather, to fit cloſe that no air
water can get thro' between it and the barrel.

When the pump is firſt wrought, or any time
dry weather when the water above the ſucker
waſted, it muſt be primed, by pouring in ſome w
ter at the top A to cover the ſucker, that no air g
through. Then raiſing the end C of the hand
the bucket F deſcends, and the water will riſe th
the hollow GL, preſſing open the valve L. Th
putting down the end C raiſes the bucket F, a
the valve L ſhuts by the weight of the water abo
it. And at the ſame time the preſſure of the a
moſphere forces the water up thro' the pipe K
and opening the valve I, it paſſes thro' the plug i
to the body of the pump. And when the ſuck
G deſcends again, the valve I ſhuts, and the wat
cannot return, but opening the valve L, paſſes th
the ſucker GL. And when the ſucker is raiſ
again, the valve L ſhuts again, and the water
raiſed in the pump. So that by the motion of t
piſton up and down, and the alternate opening a
ſhutting of the two valves; water is continua
raiſed into the body of the pump, and diſcharg
at the ſpout M.

T

The diſtance KG, from the well to the bucket, Fig. 83. muſt not be above 32 feet; for the preſſure of the atmoſphere will raiſe the water no higher, and if it is more, the pump will not work. It is evident a pump will work better when the atmoſphere is heavy than when it is light, there being a twelfth or fifteenth part difference, at different times. And when it is lighteſt it is only equal to 32 feet. Wherefore the plug H muſt always be placed ſo low, as that the ſucker GL may be within that compaſs.

A BAROMETER.

Fig. 84. is a *Barometer*, or an inſtrument to meaſure the weight of the air. It conſiſts of a glaſs cone ABC hollow within, filled full of mercury, and hermetically ſealed at the end C, ſo that no air be left in it. When it is ſet upright, the mercury deſcends down the tube BC, into the bubble A, which has a little opening at the top A, that the air may have free ingreſs and egreſs. At the top of the tube C, there muſt be a perfect vacuum. This is fixed in a frame, and hung perpendicular againſt a wall. Near the top C, on the frame, is placed a ſcale of inches, ſhewing how high the mercury is in the tube BC, above the level of it in the bubble A, which is generally from 28 to 31 inches, but moſtly about 29 or 30. Along with the ſcale of inches, there is alſo placed a ſcale of ſuch weather as has been obſerved to anſwer the ſeveral hights of the quickſilver. Such a ſcale you have annexed to the 84th figure. In dividing the ſcale of inches, care muſt be taken to make proper allowance for the riſing or falling of the quickſilver in the bubble A, which ought to be about half full, when it ſtands at 29½, which is the mean hight. For whilſt the quickſilver riſes an inch at C, it deſcends a little in the bubble A, and that deſcent

Fig. 84. deſcent muſt be deducted, which makes the diviſions be ſomething leſs than an inch. Theſe inches muſt be divided into tenth parts, for the more exact meaſuring the weight of the atmoſphere. For the pillar of mercury in the tube is always equal to the weight of a pillar of the atmoſphere of the ſame thickneſs. And as the hight of the quickſilver increaſes or decreaſes, the weight of the air increaſes or decreaſes accordingly. The tube muſt be near 3 feet long, and the bore not leſs than $\frac{1}{5}$ or $\frac{1}{6}$ of an inch, in diameter, or elſe the quickſilver will not move freely in it.

By help of the barometer, the hight of mountains may be meaſured by the following table. In which the firſt column is the hight of the mountain, &c. in feet or miles; the ſecond the hight of the quickſilver; and the third the deſcent of the quickſilver in the barometer; and this at a mean denſity of the air.

Feet	High Barom.	Deſcent	Feet	High Barom.	Deſcent.
0	29.500				
100	29.400	.100	2600	27.028	2.472
200	29.301	.199	2700	26.938	2.562
300	29.203	.297	2800	26.848	2.652
400	29.105	.395	2900	26.758	2.742
500	29.007	.493	3000	26.668	2.832
600	28.910	.590	3100	26.578	2.922
700	28.812	.688	3200	26.489	3.011
800	28.716	.784	3300	26.400	3.100
900	28.619	.881	3400	26.311	3.189
1000	28.523	.977	3500	26.222	3.278
1100	28.428	1.072	3600	26.136	3.364
1200	28.332	1.168	3700	26.049	3.451
1300	28.237	1.263	3800	25.961	3.539
1400	28.143	1.357	3900	25.874	3.626
1500	28.048	1.452	4000	25.786	3.714
1600	27.954	1.546	4100	25.699	3.801
1700	27.860	1.640	4200	25.613	3.887
1800	27.766	1.734	4300	25.527	3.973
1900	27.672	1.828	4400	25.441	4.059
2000	27.579	1.921	4500	25.355	4.145
2100	27.487	2.013	4600	25.270	4.230
2200	27.394	2.106	4700	25.185	4.315
2300	27.302	2.198	4800	25.101	4.399
2400	27.210	2.290	4900	25.017	4.483
2500	27.119	2.381	5000	24.933	4.567

Fig. 84.

The Table continued in MILES.

Miles	H. Barom.	Deſcent	Miles	H. Barom.	Deſcent
0.	29.50				
0.25	28.21	1.29	3.25	16.57	12.93
0.50	26.98	2.52	3.50	15.85	13.65
0.75	25.80	3.70	3.75	15.16	14.34
1.	24.70	4.80	4.	14.50	15.00
1.25	23.62	5.88	4.25	13.87	15.63
1.50	22.60	6.90	4.50	13.27	16.23
1.75	21.62	7.88	4.75	12.70	16.80
2.	20.68	8.82	5.	12.15	17.35
2.25	19.78	9.72	5.25	11.62	17.88
2.50	18.93	10.57	5.50	11.12	18.38
2.75	18.11	11.39	5.75	10.64	18.86
3.	17.32	12.18	6.	10.18	19.32

This table is made from a table of the air's denſity, made as in Schol. Prop. LXXVII. And then multiplying all the numbers thereof by 29.5 the mean denſity of the air. For the denſity of the air at any height above the earth is as the weight of the atmoſphere above it, (by Prop. LXXIV.); and that is as the height of the mercury in the barometer.

A WATER BAROMETER.

85. A barometer may alſo be made of water as in fig. 85, which is a water barometer. AB is a glaſs tube open at both ends, and cemented cloſe in the mouth of the bottle EF, and reaching very near the bottom. Then warming the bottle at the fire, part of the air will fly out; then the end A is put into a veſſel of water mixed with cochineal, which will go thro' the pipe into the bottle as it grows cold. Then it is ſet upright; and the water

may be made to ſtand at any point C, by ſucking Fig. or blowing at A. And if this barometer be kept 85. to the ſame degree of heat, by putting it in a veſſel of ſand, it will be very correct for taking ſmall altitudes; for a little alteration in the weight of the atmoſphere, will make the water at C riſe or fall in the tube very ſenſibly. But if it be ſuffered to grow warmer, the water will riſe too high in the tube, and ſpoil the uſe of it; ſo that it muſt be kept to the ſame temper.

If a barometer was to be made of water put into an exhauſted tube, after the manner of quickſilver; it would require a tube 36 feet long or more; which could hardly find room within doors. But then it would go 14 times more exact than quickſilver; becauſe for every inch the quickſilver riſes, the water would riſe 14; from whence every minute change in the atmoſphere would be diſcernable.

And the water barometer above deſcribed will ſhew the variation of the air's gravity as minutely as the other, if the bottle be large to hold a great quantity of air. And in any caſe, by reducing the bottle (ſo far as the air is contained) to a cylinder; and put D = diameter of the bottle, d = diameter of the pipe, p = height of air, x = riſing in the pipe, all in inches. Then the height of a hill in feet will be nearly $\overline{1+\frac{408dd}{pDD}} \times 71x$. And if y = height of the hill or any aſcent, $Q = \frac{408dd}{pDD}$. Then $x = \frac{y}{\overline{1+Q} \times 71}$ very near, at a mean denſity of the air.

A THERMOMETER.

Fig. 86. is a *thermometer*, or an inſtrument to 86. meaſure the degrees of heat and cold. AB is a hollow

Fig. 86. hollow tube near two foot long, with a ball at the bottom; it is filled with ſpirits of wine mixed with cochineal, half way up the neck; which done, it is heated very much, till the liquor fill the tube, and then it is ſealed hermetically at the end A. Then the ſpirit contracts within the tube as it cools. It is incloſed in a frame, which is graduated into degrees, for heat and cold. For hot weather dilates the ſpirit, and makes it run further up the tube; and cold weather on the contrary, contracts it, and makes it ſink lower in the tube. And the particular diviſions, ſhew the ſeveral degrees of heat and cold; againſt the principal of which, the words heat, cold, temperate, &c. are written.

They that would ſee more machines deſcribed, may conſult my large book of Mechanics, where he will meet with great variety.

FINIS.

ERRATUM.

Page 35, Line 10 from the bottom, *read*, Cor. 1. Hence *nd.*

Emerson, William

THE PROJECTION OF THE SPHERE,

ORTHOGRAPHIC, STEREOGRAPHIC, and GNOMONICAL.

Both demonſtrating the

PRINCIPLES,

And explaining the

PRACTICE

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M DCC LXIX.

we work with. But nobody in ſeeking an accurate ſolution to a Problem, will truſt to a Projection by ſcale and compaſs; becauſe this cannot be depended on in caſes of great nicety. Yet where no great exactneſs is required it will be found very ready and uſeful; and, beſides, will ſerve to prove and confirm the ſolution obtaind by Calculation.

But then this defect is abundantly recompenſed by the eaſineſs of this method. For by ſcale and compaſs only, all ſorts of Problems belonging to the Sphere, as in Aſtronomy, Geography, Dialling, &c. may be ſolved with very little trouble, which require a great deal of time and pains, to work out trigonometrically by the tables. It likewiſe affords a great pleaſure to the mind, that one can, in a little time, deſcribe the whole furniture of Heaven, and Earth, and repreſent them to the eye, in a ſmall ſcheme of paper.

But its principal uſe is for ſuch perſons (and that is by far the greater number) as having no opportunity for learning Spherical Trigonometry, have yet a deſire to reſolve ſome Problems of the Sphere. For ſuch as theſe, this ſmall Treatiſe will be of particular ſervice, becauſe the practical rules, eſpecially of any one ſort of Projection, may be learned in a very little time, and are eaſily remembered. So that I have ſome hopes I ſhall pleaſe all my Readers, whether theoretical or practical.

W. E.

THE PROJECTION OF THE SPHERE IN PLANO.

DEFINITIONS.

1. *PROJECTION* of the ſphere is the repreſenting its ſurface upon a plane, called the *Plane of Projection.*

2. *Orthographic* Projection, is the drawing the circles of the ſphere upon the plane of ſome great circle, by lines perpendicular to that plane, let fall from all the points of the circles to be projected.

3. The *Stereographic* Projection, is the drawing the circles of the ſphere upon the plane of one of its great circles, by lines drawn from the pole of that great circle to all the points of the circles to be projected.

4. The *Gnomonical* Projection, is the drawing the circles of an hemiſphere, upon a plane touching it in the vertex, by lines or rays iſſuing from the center of the hemiſphere, to all the points of the circles to be projected.

5. The *Primitive* circle is that on whoſe plane the ſphere is projected. And the pole of this circle is called the *Pole* of Projection. The point from whence the *projecting* right lines iſſue is the *projecting Point.*

6. The *Line of Meaſures* of any circle is the common interſection of the plane of projection, and another plane that paſſes thro' the eye, and is perpendicular both to the plane of projection, and to the plane of that circle.

SCHOLIUM.

There are other Projections of the Sphere, as the *Cylindrical*, the *Scenographic* which belongs to Perſpective, the *Globical* which belongs to Geography, *Mercators*, for which ſee Navigation, &c.

AXIOM.

The *Place* of any viſible point of the Sphere upon the plane of projection, is where the projecting line cuts that plane.

Cor. *If the eye be applied to the projecting point, it will view all the circles of the Sphere, and every part of them, in the projection, juſt as they appear from thence in the Sphere itſelf.*

SCHOLIUM.

The Projection of the Sphere is only the ſhadow of the circles of the Sphere upon the plane of Projection, the light being in the place of the eye or projecting point.

The Signification of ſome Characters.

+ added to.
— ſubtracting the following quantity.
< an angle.
= equal to.
⊥ perpendicular to.
|| parallel to.
: : a proportion.

SECT. I.

The Orthographic Projection of the SPHERE.

PROP. I.

IF a right line AB *is projected upon a plane, it is projected into a right line; and its length will be to the length of the projection, as radius to the coſine of its inclination above that plane.* Fig. 3.

For let fall the perpendiculars A*a*, B*b* upon the plane of projection, then *ab* will be the line it is projected into; but by trigonometry AB : is to A*o* or *ab* : : as radius : to the ſine of B or coſine of *o*AB.

Cor. 1. *If a right line is projected upon a plane, parallel thereto, it is projected into a right line parallel and equal to itſelf.*

Cor. 2. *If an angle be projected upon a plane which is parallel to the two lines forming the angle; it is projected into an angle equal to itſelf.*

Cor. 3. *Any plain figure projected upon a plane parallel to itſelf, is projected into a figure ſimilar and equal to itſelf.*

Cor. 4. *Hence alſo the area of any plain figure, is to the area of its projection : : as radius, to the coſine of its elevation or inclination.*

PROP. II.

A circle perpendicular to the plane of projection, is projected into a right line equal to its diameter.

For projecting lines drawn through all the points of the circle fall in the common ſection of the planes

Fig. of the circle and of projection, which is a line (Geom. V. 3.), and equal to the diame the circle; becauſe the planes interſect in tha meter. *Q. E. D.*

Cor. *Hence any plane figure, perpendicular plane of projection is projected into a right line. the perpendiculars from every point, will all f the common interſection of the figure with the pl projection.*

PROP. III.

1. *A circle parallel to the plane of projection is jected into a circle equal to itſelf, and concentric the primitive.*

Let BOD be the circle, I its center, C the ter of the ſphere, the points I, B, O, D, are jected into the points C, L, F, G. And there OICF, and BICL are rectangled parallelogr Conſequently LC = BI = OI = FC, (Ge III. 1.). *Q. E. D.*

Cor. *The radius* CL *or* CF *is the coſine of the cle's diſtance from the primitive, for it is the ſine of*

PROP. IV.

2. *An inclined circle is projected into an ellipſis wi tranſverſe axis is the diameter of the circle.*

Let ADBH be the inclined circle, P its cent and let it be projected into *adbh*; draw the pl ABFC*a* through the center C of the ſphere, p pendicular to the plane of the given circle a plane of projection, to interſect them in the li AB, *ab*; draw GPH, DE, perpendicular, and I parallel to AB; then becauſe the line GP, a the plane of projection are both perpendicular

t

the plane ABF; therefore GH is parallel to the Fig. plane of projection, and therefore to *gh*.

In the circle ADB, $DQ^2 = GQH = gqh$, and and $BP^2 = GP^2 = gp^2$. And (Geom. V. 12.) $BP : EP$ or $DQ :: bp : ep$ or dq, and $BP^2 : DQ^2 :: bp^2 : dq^2$; that is, $gp^2 : gqh :: bp^2 : dq^2$; and therefore *agbh* is an ellipſis, whoſe tranſverſe *gh* is the diameter of the circle. *Q. E. D.*

Cor. 1. *Since ab is perpendicular to gh, therefore ab is the conjugate axis; and is twice the ſine of the* $<$ AB*b to the radius gp; that is, the conjugate axis is equal to twice the coſine of the inclination, to the radius of the circle.*

Cor. 2. *The tranſverſe axis is equal to twice the coſine of its diſtance from its parallel great circle. For* $gh = GH = 2AP =$ *twice the ſine of* AK.

Cor. 3. *The extremities of the conjugate axis are diſtant from the center of the primitive, by the ſines of the circles neareſt and greateſt diſtance from the pole of the primitive. Thus a*C *is the ſine of* AN, *and b*C *the ſine of* BN.

Cor. 4. *Hence alſo it is plain that the conjugate axis always paſſes thro' the center* C *of the primitive; and is always in the line of meaſures of that circle.*

SCHOLIUM.

Every circle in the projection repreſents two equal circles, parallel and equidiſtant from the primitive. 3. Every right line repreſents two ſemicircles, one towards the eye, the other in the oppoſite ſide. Every ellipſis repreſents two equal circles, but contrarily inclined as AB, CD; one above the primitive the other below it.

And now the Theory being laid down, it remains only to deduce thence, ſome ſhort rules for practice, as follows.

PROP.

Fig.

PROP. V. *Prob.*

5. *To project a circle parallel to the primitive.*

Rule.

Take the complement of its diſtance fro primitive, and ſet it from A to E; and wi center C and radius CD = perpendicular E ſcribe the circle DgG.

By the plain ſcale.

Take the ſine of its diſtance from the pc the primitive; with that radius and the cen deſcribe the circle.

PROP. VI. *Prob.*

4. *To project a right circle, or one that is perpen lar to the plain of projection.*

Rule.

Thro' the center C of the primitive, draw diameter AB, and take the diſtance from its p lel great circle, and ſet from A to E, and fro to D, and draw ED, the right circle required.

By the ſcale.

Take the ſine of the circle's diſtance from its rallel great circle AB, and at that diſtance dra parallel ED for the circle required.

PROP. VII. *Prob.*

To project a given oblique circle.

Rule.

6. Draw the line of meaſures AB, and take the cle's neareſt diſtance from the primitive, and

fr

from B to D, upwards if it be above the primitive; Fig.
or downward, if below; likewiſe take its greateſt 6.
diſtance, and ſet from A to E, and draw ED; and let fall the perpendiculars EF, DG; and biſect FG in H, and erect the perpendicular KHI, making KH = HI = half ED; then deſcribe an ellipſis (by the Conic Sections) whoſe tranſverſe is IK and conjugate FG; and that ſhall repreſent the circle given.

By the ſcale.

Draw the line of meaſures AB; and take the 6.
ſines of the circle's neareſt and greateſt diſtance from the pole of the primitive, and ſet them from the center C to F and G, (both ways if the circle encompaſs the pole, but the ſame way if it lie on one ſide the pole;) biſect FG in H, and erect HK, HI perpendicular to FG, and = to the radius of the circle given, or the ſine of its diſtance from its own pole; about the axes FG, KI deſcribe an ellipſis, and it is done.

SCHOLIUM.

An ellipſis great or ſmall may be deſcribed by 10.
points, thus; thro' the center D of the circle and ellipſis, draw BD $\perp$ the tranſverſe AR; and on AR erect a ſufficient number of perpendiculars IK, *ik* &c. and make as DB or DA : DE : : IK : IF : : *ik* : *if* &c. then thro' all the points E, F, *f*, &c. draw a curve. See Prop. 76. ellipſis.

PROP. VIII. *Prob.*

To find the pole of a given ellipſis.

Rule.

Thro' the center of the primitive C, draw the 7.
conjugate of the ellipſis; on the extreme points F, G, erect the perpendiculars FE, GD, or ſet the tranſverſe

Fig. tranſverſe IK from E to D, and biſect ED in
7. and let fall RP perpendicular to AB, then i
the pole.

By the ſcale.

7. Take CF, and CG, and apply to the ſines;
find the degrees anſwering or the ſupplemen
then take the ſine of half the ſum of theſe degr
if F, G be both on one ſide of C; or the ſine
half the difference, if they lie on contrary ſid
and ſet it from C to the pole P.

Or thus; apply the ſemi-tranſverſe IH to
ſines, and ſet the degrees from E to R; and d
RP ⊥ to AB; and P is the pole.

PROP. IX. *Prob.*

To meaſure an arch of a parallel circle; or to
any number of degrees on it.

Rule.

5. With the radius of the parallel, and one f
in C deſcribe a circle G*g*, draw CGB, and C
then B*b* will meaſure the given arch G*g*; or
will contain the given number of degrees ſet fr
B to *b*. So that either being given finds the oth

PROP. X. *Prob.*

To meaſure any part of a right circle.

Rule.

8. In the right circle ED, let EA ⊥ AD;
let AB be to be meaſured. Make CF = A
with extent BA = FG deſcribe the arch GI; d
CGK to touch it in G; then is HK the meaſure
AB. For FG = S. ∠ HCK to the radius CF
AE, and BA is the ſame, by Cor. Prop. III.

Oth

.8.

Fig. 8.

Otherwiſe thus.

On the diameter ED, deſcribe the ſemicircle END, draw AN, BO, LP perpendicular to ED, then ON is the meaſure of BA, and NP of AL; and ON or NP may be meaſured as in Prop. IX.

By the ſcale.

Let AL be to be meaſured. Draw CD; and LM parallel to A[illegible]hen CM applied to the ſines gives the degrees. For radius CD : AD :: CM : AL.

Cor. *If the right circle paſſes thro' the center, there is no more to do, but to raiſe perpendiculars on it, which will cut the primitive, as required. Or apply the part of the right circle to the line of ſines.*

PROP. XI. *Prob.*

To ſet off any number of degrees upon a right circle, DE.

Rule.

Draw CA ⊥ DE, and make the $\angle HCK$ = the degrees given, make CF = radius AE, take FG the neareſt diſtance, and ſet from A to B; then $AB \doteq \angle HCK$, the degrees propoſed. 8.

Otherwiſe thus.

On ED deſcribe the ſemicircle END, then by Prop. IX. ſet off NP = degrees given, draw PL perpendicular to ED, then AL contains the degrees required.

Or thus by the ſcale.

Draw CD, take the given degrees of the ſines, and ſet from C to M, and draw ML parallel to CA, then AL = arch required.

PROP.

Fig.

PROP. XII. *Prob.*

9. *To meaſure an arch of an ellipſis; or to ſet*
10. *number of degrees upon it.*

Rule.

About AR the tranſverſe axis of the elli
deſcribe a circle ABR; erect the perpendicu
BED, KFI, on AR; then BK is the meaſur
EF, or EF is the repreſent[illegible] of the arch
And BK is to be meaſured, [illegible]ny degrees ſet
on it, as in Prop. IX.

SCHOLIUM.

These Problems are all evident from the th
firſt propoſitions, and need no other demonſtrati
If the ſphere be projected on any plane parallel
the primitive, the projection will be the very ſam
for being effected by parallel lines, which are
ways at the ſame diſtance, there will be produ
the ſame figure, or repreſentation. Of all ort
graphic projections, thoſe on the meridian or
the ſolſtitial colure, commonly called the Anale
ma, is moſt uſeful; becauſe a great many of t
circles of the ſphere fall into right lines or circl
whereas in the projections upon other planes, th
are projected into ellipſes, which are hard to c
ſcribe; which makes theſe ſorts of projection to
neglected.

And by the ſame rules that the circles of t
ſphere are projected upon a plane, any other figu
may likewiſe be orthographically projected; by le
ting fall perpendiculars upon the plane from all t
angles, or all the points of the figure, and joini
theſe points with right or curve lines, as they a
in the figure itſelf.

By this kind of projection, either the convex
concave ſide of the ſphere, may be projected

whic

which is peculiar to this ſort of projection; that Fig. 9.
is, either the hemiſphere towards you, or that from you, may be projected upon the plane of its great circle. And ſince in ſome caſes they both have the ſame appearance, it ought to be mentioned whether it is.

But if both the convex and concave ſides of the *ſame hemiſphere* be projected; that is, if you make two projections, one for the convex, the other for the concave ſide; the circles in one will be inverted in reſpect of the other, the right to the left, &c. Becauſe in looking at the ſame hemiſphere, it will not have the ſame appearance, when you look at the contrary ſides of it; becauſe you look contrary ways at it, to ſee the external and internal ſurfaces.

Fig.

SECT. II.

The Stereographic Projection of SPHERE.

PROP. I.

*ANY circle paſſing thro' the projecting poin
projected into a right line.*

For all lines drawn from the projecting p
to this circle, paſs thro' the interſection of this
cle and plane of projection, which is a right li

Cor. 1. *A great circle paſſing thro' the poles o
primitive is projected into a right line paſſing
the center.*

Cor. 2. *Any circle paſſing thro' the projecting
is projected into a right line perpendicular to the
of meaſures, and diſtant from the center, the
tangent of its neareſt diſtance from the pole oppoſi*
12. *the projecting point. Thus the circle* AE *is proj
into a right line paſſing thro'* G, *and perpendicul*
BC, *the line of meaſures, and* GC *is the ſemitan
of* EM.

PROP. II.

*Every circle (that paſſes not through the proje
point) is projected into a circle.*

11. *Caſe* I. Let the circle EF be parallel to
primitive BD; lines drawn to all points of it fr
the projecting point A, will form a conic ſurf
which being cut parallel to the baſe by the pl
BD, the ſection GH (into which EF is project
will be a circle by the conic ſections.

C

Fig. 12.

Caſe II. Let BH be the line of meaſures to the circle EF, draw FK parallel to BD, then arch AK = AF, and therefore ∠ AFK or AHG = AEF; therefore in the triangles AEF, AGH, the angles at E and H are equal, and the angle A common; therefore the angles at F and G are equal. Therefore the cone of rays AEF (whoſe baſe EF is a circle) is cut by ſubcontrary ſection, by the plane of projection BD, and therefore, by the conic ſections, the ſection GH (which is the projection of the circle EF) will alſo be a circle. *Q. E. D.*

Cor. *When* AF *is equal to* AG, *the circle* EF *is projected into a circle equal to it ſelf.*

For then the ſimilar triangles AHG and AEF, will alſo be equal, and GH = EF.

PROP. III.

Any point on the ſphere's ſurface is projected into a point, diſtant from the center, the ſemi-tangent of its diſtance from the pole oppoſite to the projecting point.

Thus the point E is projected into G, and F into H; and CG is the ſemi-tangent of EM, and CH of MF.

Cor. 1 *A great circle perpendicular to the primitive is projected into a line of ſemi-tangents paſſing thro' the center, and produced infinitely.*

For MF is projected into CH its ſemi-tangent, and EM into the ſemi-tangent CG.

Cor. 2. *Any arch* EM *of a great circle perp. to the primitive; is projected into the ſemi-tangent of it.*

Thus EM is projected into GC.

Cor. 3. *Any arch* EMF *of a great circle is projected into the ſum of its ſemi-tangents, of its greateſt*

Fig. *and leaſt diſtances from the oppoſite pole* M, *if*
12. *on both ſides of* M, *or the dif. of the ſemi-tan*
when all on one ſide.

PROP. IV.

13. *The angle made by two circles on the ſurface o ſphere is equal to that made by their repreſenta upon the plane of projection.*

Let the angle BPK be projected. Thro' angular point P and the center C, draw plane of a great circle PED perpendicular to plane of projection EFG. Let a plane PHG t the ſphere in P; then ſince the circle EPD is pendicular both to this plane and to the plan projection, therefore it is perpendicular to thei terſection GH. The angles made by circles ar ſame as thoſe made by their tangents, therefor the plane, PGH, draw the tangents PH, PF, to the arches, PB, PD, PK; and theſe wil projected into the lines *p*H, *p*F, *p*G: Now I ſa $<$ HPG $= <$ H*p*G. For the angle CPF right angle = C*p*A + CAP; therefore takin way the equal angles CPA and CAP, and $<$ = C*p*A or P*p*F; conſequently *p*F = PF. T fore in the right angled triangles PFG and there are two ſides equal and the included $<$ ri therefore hypothenuſe PG = *p*G. And for ſame reaſon in the right angled triangles PFH *p*FH, PH = *p*H. Laſtly in the triangles and *p*HG, all the ſides are reſpectively equal, therefore $<$ P = $<$ *p*. *Q. E. D.*

Cor. 1. *The rumb lines projected make the ſa gles with the meridians as upon the globe; and fore are logarithmic ſpirals on the plain of the noctial. For every particle of the rumb coincides ſome great circle.*

Cor. 2. *The angle made by two circles on the ſphere is equal to the angle made by the radii of their projections at the point of interſection. For the angle made by two circles on a plane is the ſame with that made by their radii drawn to the point of interſection.* Fig.

PROP. V.

The center of a projected (leſſer) circle perpendicular to the primitive, is in the line of meaſures diſtant from the center of the primitive, the ſecant of the leſſer circles diſtance from its own pole; and its radius is the tangent of that diſtance.

Let A be the projecting point, EF the circle to be projected, GH the projected diameter. From the centers C, D draw CF, DF, and the triangles CFI, DFI are right angled at I; then $< IFC = < FCA = 2 < FEA$ or $2FEG = 2 < FHG = < FDG$, therefore $IFC + IFD = FDG + IFD$ = a right angle; that is CFD is a right angle, and the line CD is the ſecant of BF, and the radius FD is the tangent of it. *Q. E. D.* 14.

Cor. *If theſe circles be actually deſcribed, 'tis plain the radius* FD *is a tangent to the primitive at* F, *where the leſſer circle cuts it.*

PROP. VI.

The center of Projection of a great circle is in the line of meaſures, diſtant from the center of the primitive, the tangent of its inclination to the primitive; and its radius is the ſecant of its inclination.

Let A be the projecting point, EF the great circle, GH the projected diameter, D the center; 15.

Fig. draw DA. The angle EAF being in a ſem
15. cle is right. In the right angled triangle G
AC is perpendicular to GH, therefore $\angle$ GA
AHC and their double, ECB = ADC, and
complements. ECI = CAD. Therefore CD i
tangent of ECI, and radius AD its ſecant. Q.

16. Cor. 1. *If the great oblique circle* AGBH *be*
ally deſcribed upon the primitive AIB. *I ſay, all*
circles paſſing thro' G *will have the centers of*
projections in the line RS *drawn thro' the cente*
perpendicular to the line of meaſures IH.

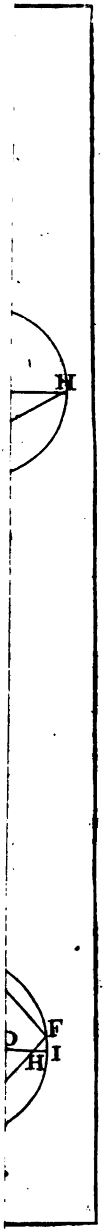
For ſince all great circles cut one another at
micircle's diſtance, all circles paſſing thro' G
cut at the oppoſite point H; and therefore
centers muſt be in the Line RDS.

Cor. 2. *Hence alſo if any oblique circle* GL
required to make any given angle with another
BGAH, *it will be projected the ſame way with*
gard to GAH *conſidered as a primitive, and* R
line of meaſures; as the circle BGA *is on the p*
tive BIA, *and line of meaſures* ID. *And the*
the tangent of the angle AGL *to the radius* GD
from D *to* N, *gives the center of* GL.

For the $\angle$ NGD will then be equal to A
by Cor. 2. Prop. IV. and therefore GLH is ri
projected.

Cor. 3. *And for the ſame reaſon, if* N *be th*
ter of the circle GgHR; *the centers of all circles*
ing thro' g *and* R, *will be in the line* rNs *perp*
cular to RS; *ſo* n *is the center of* grR. *But th*
g, R *do not repreſent oppoſite points of the circle* G
therefore all circles paſſing thro' g, R, (*as* grR)
be leſſer circles, except GgHR.

SCHOLI



. 15.

UNIV.

SCHOLIUM.

Fig. 16.
Of all great circles in the projection, the primitive is the leaſt. For the radius of any oblique great circle (being the ſecant of the inclination) is greater than the radius of the primitive; as the ſecant is always greater than the radius. Therefore every oblique great circle in the projection is greater than the primitive.

PROP. VII.

The projected extremities of the diameter of any circle, are in the line of meaſures, diſtant from the center of the primitive circle, the ſemi-tangents of its neareſt and greateſt diſtances from the pole of projection oppoſite to the projecting point.

For the diameter of the circle EF is projected 15.
into GH, from the projecting point A. But GC 17.
is the ſemi-tangent of EB, and CH the ſemi-tangent of BF. *Q. E. D.*

Cor. 1. *The points where an inclined great circle* 15.
cuts the line of meaſures, within and without the primitive, is diſtant from the center of the primitive, the tangent and co-tangent of half the complement of the circle's inclination to the primitive.

For CG = tangent of half EB, or of half the complement of IE the inclination. And (becauſe the < EAF is right) CH is the co-tangent of GAC, or half EB.

Cor. 2. *Hence the center* D *of a projected circle is* 17.
in the line of meaſures diſtant, from the center of the 18.
primitive, half the difference of the ſemi-tangents of its neareſt and greateſt diſtance from the oppoſite pole, if it encompaſſes that pole; but half the ſum of the ſemi-tangents if it lye on one ſide the pole of projection.

Fig. Cor. 3. *And the radius is half the ſum of th*
mi-tangents, if the circle encompaſſes the pole; or
the difference if it lyes on one ſide.

17. Cor. 4. *Hence alſo if pq be the projected pole*
will be qG : pG :: qH : pH.

For draw G*n* parallel to *q*A, and ſince P, Q
the poles, therefore *q*A*p* is a right angle, and ſ
the angles GA*p* and *p*AH are equal, and G*n*
pendicular to A*p*, therefore GA = A*n*; whe
by ſimilar triangles *q*G : *q*H :: A*n* or AG : A
G*p*, *p*H, (Geom. II 25.) And conſequently
line *q*H is cut horomonically in the points G,

PROP. VIII.

The projected poles of any circle are in the lin
meaſures, within and without the primitive, and
tant from its center the tangent and co-tangent of
its inclination to the primitive.

19. The poles P, *p* of the circle EF are proje
into D and *d*; and CD is the tangent of CA
half BCP, that is, of half GCI, the inclinatio
the circle ICK, parallel to EF. Likewiſe C
the tangent of CA*d*, or the co-tangent of CA
Q. E

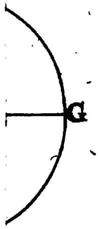
Cor. 1. *The pole of the primitive is its center;*
the pole of a right circle is in the primitive.

19. Cor. 2. *The projected center of any circle is al*
between the projected pole (neareſt to it on the ſph
and the center of the primitive; and the proje
centers of all circles lye between the projected pole.

For the middle point of EF or its center is
jected into S; and all the points in P*p* (in which
all the centers) are projected into D*d*.

).

22.



18.

UNIV.

Cor. 3. *If* P *be the projected center of any circle* EFG, *any right lines* EG, FH *paſſing thro'* P *will intercept equal arches* EF, GH. Fig. 20.

For in any circle of the ſphere, any two lines, paſſing thro' the center, intercept equal arches; and theſe are projected into right lines, paſſing thro' the projected center P, and therefore EF, GH, repreſent equal arches.

PROP. IX.

20. 21. *If* EFGH, *efgh repreſent two equal circles, whereof* EFG *is as far diſtant from its pole* P, *as efg is from the projecting point. I ſay, any two right lines* (*e*EP, *and f*FP,) *being drawn thro'* P, *will intercept equal arches* (*in repreſentation*) *of theſe circles; on the ſame ſide, if* P *falls within the circles; but on the contrary ſide, if without; that is,* EF = *ef, and* GH = *gh.*

For by the nature of the ſection of a ſphere; any two circles paſſing thro' two given points or poles on the ſurface of the ſphere, will intercept equal arches of two other circles equidiſtant from theſe poles. Therefore the circles EFG and *efg* on the ſphere, are equally cut by the planes of any two circles paſſing thro' the projecting point and the pole P, on the ſphere. But theſe circles (by Prop. I.) are projected into the right lines P*e* and P*f*, paſſing thro' P. And the intercepted arches repreſenting equal arches on the ſphere, are therefore equal, that is, EF = *ef*, and GH = *gh*.

Cor. 1. *If a circle is projected into a right line* EF, *perpendicular to the line of meaſures* EG; *and if from the center* C *a circle efP be deſcribed paſſing thro' its pole* P, *and* P*f be drawn; then arch ef* = EF. *And if any other circle be deſcribed whoſe vertex is* P, *the arch ef will always be equal to* EF. 22.

Fig. Cor. 2. *Hence alſo, if from the pole of a great circle there be drawn two right lines, the intercepted arch of the projected great circle will be equal to the intercepted arch of the primitive.*

23. Cor. 3. *After the ſame manner, if there be two*
24. *equal circles* EF, *ef, whereof one is as far from the pole* P, *as the other is from the pole of projection* C, *oppoſite to the projecting point. Then any circle drawn thro' the points* P, C, *will intercept equal arch* EF $=$ *ef*; *and* GH $=$ *gh, between it and the line of meaſures* PCG.

For this is true on the ſphere, and their projections are the ſame.

Cor. 4. *If from an angular point be drawn two right lines thro' the poles of its ſides; the intercepted arch of the primitive, will be equal to that angle.*

For the diſtance of the poles is equal to that angle.

PROP. X.

25. *If* QH, NK *be two equal circles, whereof* NK
26. *is as far from the projecting point as* QH *from its pole* P; *and if they be projected into the circles whoſe radii are* MC *or* CL, *and* DF *or* FG, F *being the center of* DG, *and* E *the projected pole. I ſay, the pole* E *will be diſtant from their centers in proportion to the radii of the circles; that is,* CE : EF : : CL : DF *or* FG.

For ſince NK and ML are parallel, and arch NI $=$ PH, therefore $\angle ELI = NKI$ (or nKI) $= GIP$; therefore the triangles IEL and IEG are ſimilar, whence EL : EI : : EI : EG. Again the angle $EMI = KNI = PIQ$, and therefore the triangles IEM and IED are ſimilar, whence EM : EI : : EI : ED. Therefore $EI^2 = EL \times EG =$

EM × ED. Conſequently EM : EL : : EG : ED ; Fig. and by compoſition $\frac{EM + EL}{2} : \frac{EM - EL}{2} : : \frac{EG + ED}{2} : \frac{EG - ED}{2}$; that is, CM : EC : : FG : FF. *Q. E. D.*

Cor. 1. *Hence if the circle* KN *be as far from* 25.
the projecting point, as QH *is from either of its poles,* 26.
and if E, O, *be its projected poles; then will* EL : EM : : ED : : EG : : OD : OG.

This follows from the foregoing demonſtration, and Cor. 4. Prop. VII.

Cor. 2. *Hence alſo if* F *be the center, and* FD *the* 25.
radius of any circle QH, *and* E, O *the projected* 26.
poles; then EF : DF : : DF : FO.

For it follows from Cor. 1. that $\frac{EG + ED}{2} : \frac{EG - ED}{2} : : \frac{OG + OD}{2} : \frac{OG - OD}{2}$.

Cor. 3. *Hence if the circle* DBG, *be as far from* 27.
its projected pole P, as LMN *is from the projecting* 28.
point; and if any right lines be drawn thro' P, *as* MPG, NPK, *they will cut off ſimilar arches* GK, MN *in the two circles.*

For from the centers C, F, draw the lines CN, FK, then ſince the angles CPN, and FPK are equal, and by this Prop. CP : CN : : FP : FK ; therefore (Geom. II. 16.) ; the triangles PCN and PFK are ſimilar ; and the angle PCN = $<$ PFK ; therefore the arches MN and GK are ſimilar.

Cor. 4. *Hence alſo if thro' the projected pole* P *of* 27.
any circle DBG, *a right line* BPK *be drawn. Then* 28.
I ſay the degrees in the arch GK *ſhall be the meaſure of* DB *in the projection. And the degrees in* DB, *ſhall be the meaſure of* GK *in the projection.*

For

Fig. For (by Prop. IX.) the arch MN is the mea of DB, and therefore GK which is ſimilar to M will alſo be the meaſure of it.

Cor. 5. *The centers of all projected circles are beyond the projected poles (in reſpect to the cente the primitives); and none of their centers can between them.*

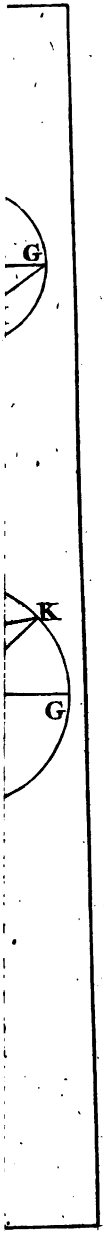
20. Cor. 6. *Hence it follows (by* Cor. 5. *and* Pr. V Cor. 3.*) that all circles that are not parallel to primitive have equal arches on the ſphere repreſe by unequal arches on the plane of projection.*

For if P be the projected center, then GF greater than EF.

SCHOLIUM.

It will be eaſy by the foregoing propoſition deſcribe the repreſentation of any circle, and reverſe will eaſily ſhow what circle of the ſphere projected circle repreſents. What follows he after is deduced from the foregoing propoſitic and will eaſily be underſtood without any ot demonſtration.

If the ſphere was to be projected on any pl parallel to the primitive, 'tis all the ſame thi For the cones of rays iſſuing from the project point, are all cut by parallel planes into ſimilar tions, it only makes the projections bigger or l according to the diſtance of the plane of projecti whilſt they are ſtill ſimilar; and amounts to no m than projecting from different ſcales upon the ſa plane. And therefore the projecting the ſphere the plane of a leſſer circle is only projecting it up the great circle parallel thereto, and continuing the lines of the ſcheme to that leſſer circle.



22.

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PROP. XI. *Prob.*

To draw a circle parallel to the primitive at a given diſtance from its pole.

Rule.

Thro' the center C draw two diameters AB, DE, perpendicular to one another. Take in your compaſſes the diſtance of the circle from the pole of the primitive oppoſite to the projecting point, and ſet it from D to E; from E draw EF to interſect AB in I; with the radius CI, and center C, deſcribe the circle GI required. 29.

By the plain Scale.

With the radius CI, equal to the ſemi-tangent of the circles diſtance from the pole of projection oppoſite the projecting point, deſcribe the circle IG. Here the radius of projection CA, is the tangent of 45°, or the ſemi-tangent of 90°.

PROP. XII. *Prob.*

To draw a leſſer circle perpendicular to the primitive at a given diſtance from the pole of that circle.

Rule.

Thro' the pole B draw the line of meaſures AB, make BG the circle's diſtance from its pole, and draw CG, and GF perpendicular to it; with the radius FG deſcribe the circle GI required. 30.

By the Scale.

Set the ſecant of the circle's diſtance from its pole from C to F, gives the center. With the tangent of that diſtance for a radius, deſcribe the circle GI.

Or thus, make BG the circle's diſtance from its pole; and GF its tangent, ſet from G, gives F the center;

Fig. 30. center; thro' G deſcribe the circle GI from the center F.

Cor. *Hence a great circle perpendicular to the primitive, is a right line* CDE *drawn thro' the center perpendicular to the line of meaſures.*

SCHOLIUM.

When the center F lyes at too a great a diſtance; draw EG, to cut AB in H; or lay the ſemi-tangent of DG from C to H. And thro' the three points G, H, I, draw a circle with a bow.

PROP. XIII. *Prob.*

To deſcribe an oblique circle at a given diſtance from a pole given.

Rule.

31. Draw the line of meaſures AB thro' the given point *p*, if that point is given; and draw DE ⊥ to it, alſo draw E*p*P. Or if the point *p* is not given, ſet the height of the pole above the primitive from B to P. Then from P ſet of PH = PI = circle's diſtance from its pole; and draw EH, EI, to interſect AB in F and G. About the diameter FG deſcribe the circle required.

By the Scale.

If the point P is given, apply C*p* to the ſemi-tangents and it gives the diſtance of the pole from D, the pole of projection oppoſite to the projecting point. This diſtance being had, you'll eaſily find the greateſt and neareſt diſtances of the circle from the pole of the primitive oppoſite to the projecting point; take the ſemi-tangents of theſe diſtances and ſet from C to G and F, both the ſame way if the circle lye all on one ſide, but each its own way, if on different ſides of D. And then FG is the diameter of the circle required to be drawn.

Cor. 1. *If* F *be the pole of a great circle as of* Fig.
DLE. *Draw* EFH. *And make* HP = DH, *and* 31.
draw EpP, *and then p is its center.*

Or thus, draw EFH *thro' the pole* F; *make* HK 90 *degrees; draw* EK *cutting the line of meaſures in* L. *Thro' the three points* D, L, E, *draw the great circle required.*

Cor. 2. *Hence it will be eaſy to draw one circle parallel to another.*

PROP. XIV. *Prob.*

Thro' two given points A, B, *to draw a great circle.*

Rule.

Thro' one of the points A, draw a line thro' the 32.
center, ACG; and EF perpendicular to it. Then draw AE, and EG perpendicular to it. Thro' the three points A, B, G draw the circle required.

Or thus; From E (found as before) draw EH, and then HCI, and laſtly EIG, gives G a third point, thro' which the circle muſt paſs.

By the Scale.

Draw ACG; and apply AC to the ſemi-tangents, find the degrees, ſet the ſemi-tangent of its ſupplement from C to G, for a third point.

Or thus; Apply AC to the tangents, and ſet the tangent of its complement from C to G. And thro' the three points ABG, deſcribe the circle required.

For ſince HEI or AEG is a right angle, therefore A, G are oppoſite points of the ſphere; and therefore all circles paſſing thro' A and G are great circles.

SCHOLIUM.

If the points A, B, G lie nearly in a right line, then you may draw a circle thro' them with a bow.

PROP.

Fig.

PROP. XV. *Prob.*

About a pole given, to deſcribe a circle thro' a g
point.

Rule.

33. Let P be the pole, and B the given point ; t
P, B deſcribe the great circle AD (by Prop. XI
whoſe center is E ; thro' the center C draw C
and from the center E, draw EB, and BF per
dicular to it. To the center F, and radius
deſcribe the circle BGH required.

PROP. XVI. *Prob.*

To find the poles of any circle FNG.

Rule.

31. Thro' its center draw the line of meaſures
and DE perpendicular to it. Draw EFH,
ſet its diſtance (from its own pole) from H t
and draw E*p*P, then *p* is the pole.

Or thus, Draw EFH, EIG, and biſect H
P, and draw E*p*P, and *p* is the internal pole. L
ly draw PCQ, and EQ*q*, and *q* is the external p

In a great circle DLE, draw ELK, and m
DH = AK, (or KH = AD, and draw EFH,
F is the pole.

By the Scale.

Apply CF to the ſemi-tangents, and note
degrees. Take the ſum of theſe degrees and
the circle's diſtance from its pole, if the circle
all on one ſide, but their difference if it enc
paſſes the pole of projection ; ſet the ſemi-tang
of this ſum or difference from C to the inte
pole *p*. And the ſemi-tangent of its ſupplem
C*q*, gives the external pole *q*.

Or thus, Apply CF and CG to the ſemi-tange
ſet the ſemi-tangent of half the ſum of the deg

(if the circle lies all one way) or of half the difference (if it encompaſſes the pole of projection), from C to the pole p; and the ſemi-tangent of the ſupplement, Cq gives the external pole q. Fig. 31.

In a great circle as DLE, draw the line of meaſures AB perp. to DE; and ſet the tangent and co-tangent of half its inclination, from the center C, different ways to F and f; which gives the internal and external poles F and f.

PROP. XVII. *Prob.*

To draw a great circle at any given inclination above the primitive; or making any given angle with it, at a given point.

Rule.

Draw the line of meaſures AB; and DCE perpendicular to it. Make EK = 2HD = twice the complement of the circle's inclination; (or DK = 2AH = twice the inclination); and draw EKF, then F is the center of EGD, the circle required. 34.

Or thus; Draw DE and AB perp. to it, and let D be the point given. Make AH the inclination, and draw EGH and HCN; and ENO, to cut AB in O. Then biſect GO in F, for the center of the circle required.

By the Scale.

Set the tangent of the inclination in the line of meaſures from C to F, then F is the center. Set the ſemi-tangent of the complement from C to G; then GF or DF is the radius.

Or the ſecant of the inclination ſet from G or D to F gives the center.

Cor. *To draw an oblique circle to make a given angle with a given oblique circle* DGE *at* D. *Draw* EGH, *and ſet the given angle from* H *to* I, *and draw* ELI. *Thro'* D, L, E *deſcribe a great circle.*

PROP.

Fig.

PROP. XVIII. *Prob.*

Through a given point P, *to draw a great ci*
to make a given angle with the primitive.

Rule.

35. Thro' the point given P and the center C
the line AB; and DE perpendicular to it. Se
given angle from A to H and from H to K,
draw BGK; with radius CG, and center C deſc
the circle GIF; and with radius BG and cent
croſs that circle in F. Then with radius FP
center F, deſcribe the circle LPM required.

By the Scale.

With the tangent of the given angle and
foot in C, deſcribe the arch FG. With the ſe
of the given angle and one foot in the given p
P, croſs that arch at F. From the center F
cribe a circle thro' the point P.

PROP. XIX. *Prob.*

To draw a great circle to make a given angle
a given oblique circle FPR, *at a given point* P
that circle.

Rule.

36. Thro' the center C and the given point P, d
the right line DE; and AB perpendicular to
draw APG and make $BM = 2DG$; and draw
to cut DE in I. Draw IQ perpendicular to I
then IQ is the line wherein the centers of all
cles are found which paſs thro' the point P. F
N the center of the given circle FPR, and m
the angle NPL equal to the given angle, then
is the center of the circle HPK required.

By the Scale. Fig.

Thro' P and C draw DE; apply CP to the ſemi-tangents, and ſet the tangent of its complement from C to I (or the ſecant from P to I). On DI erect the perpendicular IQ. Find the center N of FPR, and make the angle NPL = angle given, and L is the center. 36.

Cor. *If one circle is to be drawn perpendicular to another, it muſt be drawn thro' its poles.*

PROP. XX. *Prob.*

To draw a great circle thro' a given point P, *to make a given angle with a given great circle* DE.

Rule.

About the given point P as a pole (by Prop. 13. Cor. 1.) deſcribe the great circle FG; find I the pole of the given circle DE, and (by Prop. 16.) about the pole I (by Prop. 13.) deſcribe the ſmall circle HKL at a diſtance equal to the given angle, to interſect FG in H; about the pole H deſcribe (by Prop. 13.) the great circle APB required. 37.

PROP. XXI. *Prob.*

To draw a great circle to cut two given great circles abd, ebf at given angles.

Rule.

Find the poles *s*, *r*, of the two given circles, by Prop. 16. about which draw two parallels *pbk*, *pnk*, at the diſtances reſpectively equal to the angles given by Prop. 13. the point of interſection *p*, is the pole of the circle *moq* required. 50.

Cor. *Hence, to draw a right circle to make with an oblique circle, abd, any given angle. Draw a parallel pbk at a diſtance from the pole of the oblique circle, equal to the given angle. Its interſection*

Fig. *f with the primitive, gives the pole of the right ci*
gle required.

P R O P. XXII. *Prob.*

To lay any number of degrees on a great circle;
to meaſure any arch of it.

Rule.

38. Let AFI be the primitive; find the internal
P of the given circle DEH (by Prop 16.) lay
degrees on the primitive from A to F, and d
PA, PF, intercepting the part required DE.
to meaſure DE, draw PEF and PDA, and A
its meaſure, and applied to the line of chords ſh
how many degrees it is.

Or thus; Find the external pole *p* of the gi
circle, ſet the given degrees from I to K, and d
*p*I, *p*K, intercepting the part DE required. O
meaſure DE, thro' D and E draw *p*I, *p*K, then
is the meaſure of DE.

Or thus; Thro' the internal pole P, draw
lines DPG, and EPL; ſetting the given deg
from G to L in the circle GL; then DE is the a
required. Or if DE be to be meaſured, then
degrees in the arch GL is the meaſure of DE.

Or thus; Set the given degrees from G to H
the circle GL and from the external pole *p*, d
*p*G, *p*H, intercepting DE the arch required.
to meaſure DE, draw *p*DG, *p*EH, then the deg
in GH, is equal to DE.

By the Scale for right Circles.

38. Let CA be the right circle, take the numbe
degrees off the ſemi-tangents and ſet from C t
for the arch CD. Or if the given degrees ar
be ſet from A, then take the degrees off the ſe
tangents from 90° towards the beginning, and
from A to D. And if CD was to be meaſu

ap

apply it to the beginning of the ſemi-tangents; and to meaſure AD, apply it from 90° backwards, and the degrees intercepted gives its meaſure. Fig.

SCHOLIUM.

The primitive is meaſured by the line of chords, or elſe it is actually divided into degrees.

PROP. XXIII. *Prob.*

To ſet any number of degrees on a leſſer circle, or to meaſure any arch of it.

Rule.

Let the leſſer circle be DEH; find its internal pole 38. P, by Prop. 16. deſcribe the circle AFK parallel to the primitive, by Prop. 11. and as far from the projecting point, as the given circle DE is from its internal pole P, ſet the given degrees from A to F, and draw PA, PF interſecting the given circle in D, E; then DE is the arch required. Or to meaſure DE, draw PDA, PEF, and AF ſhews the degrees in DE.

Or thus; Find the external pole *p*, of the given circle by Prop. 16. deſcribe the leſſer circle AFK as far from the projecting point, as DE the given circle is from its pole *p*, by Prop. 11. ſet the degrees from I to K and draw *p*DI, *p*EK, then DE repreſents the given number of degrees. Or to meaſure DE; draw *p*DI, *p*EK; and KI is the meaſure of DE.

Or thus; Let O be the center of the given circle DEH; thro' the internal pole P, draw lines DPG, EPL, divide the quadrant GQ into 90 equal degrees, and if the given degrees be ſet from G to L, then DE will repreſent theſe degrees. Or the degrees in GL will meaſure DE.

Or thus; Divide the quadrant GR into 90 equal parts or degrees, and ſet the given degrees from G to H, and draw *p*DG, *p*EH, from the external pole *p*; then DE will repreſent the given degrees. Or

Fig. thro' D, E drawing pDG, pEH, then the num
of equal degrees in GH is the meaſure of DE.

SCHOLIUM.

Any circle parallel to the primitive is divide
meaſured, by drawing lines from the center, to
like diviſions of the primitive. Or by help of
chords on the ſector, ſet to the radius of that circ

PROP. XXIV. *Prob.*

To meaſure any angle.

Rule.

8. By Cor. 1. Prop. 13. About the angular poi
a pole, deſcribe a great circle, and note whe
interſects the legs of the angle; thro' theſe poin
interſection, and the angular point, draw two r
lines, to cut the primitive; the arch of the pr
tive intercepted between them is the meaſure o
angle. This needs no example.

Or thus; by Prop. 16. Find the two pole
the containing ſides, (the neareſt, if it be an a
angle, otherwiſe the furtheſt) and thro' the ang
point and theſe poles, draw right lines to the pr
tive, then the intercepted arch of the primiti
31. the angle required. As if the angle AEL was
quired. Let C and F be the poles of EA and
From the angular point E, draw ECD and E
Then the arch of the primitive DH, is the me
of the angle AEL.

SCHOLIUM.

Becauſe in the Stereographic Projection of
Sphere, all circles are projected either into circl
right lines, which are eaſily deſcribed; there
this ſort of projection is preferred before all ot
Alſo thoſe planes are preferred before others to
ject upon, where moſt circles are projected
right lines, they being eaſier to deſcribe and mea
than circles are; ſuch are the projections on
planes of the meridian and ſolſtitial colure.

SE

Fig.

SECT. III.

The Gnomonical Projection of the SPHERE.

PROP. I.

Every great circle as BAD *is projected into a right line, perpendicular to the line of meaſures, and diſtant from the center, the co-tangent of its inclination, or the tangent of its neareſt diſtance from the pole of projection.* 39.

Let CBED be perpendicular both to the given circle BAD and plane of projection, and then the interſection CF will be the line of meaſures. Now ſince the plane of the circle BD, and the plane of projection are both perpendicular to BCDE, therefore their common ſection will alſo be perpendicular to BCDE, and conſequently to the line of meaſures CF. Now ſince the projecting point A is in the plane of the circle, all the points of it will be projected into that ſection; that is, into a right line paſſing thro' *d*, and perpendicular to C*d*. And C*d* is the tangent of CD, or co-tangent of C*d*A. *Q. E. D.*

Cor. 1. *A great circle perpendicular to the plane of projection is projected into a right line paſſing thro' the center of projection; and any arch is projected into its correſpondent tangent.* 39.

Thus the arch CD is projected into the tangent C*d*.

Cor. 2. *Any point as* D, *or the pole of any circle, is projected into a point d diſtant from the pole of projection* C, *the tangent of that diſtance.*

Cor. 3. *If two great circles be perpendicular to each other, and one of them paſſes thro' the pole of projec-*

Fig. *tion; they will be projected into two right lines*
39. *pendicular to each other.*

For the repreſentation of that circle which p
thro' the pole of projection is the line of mea
of the other circle.

Cor. 4. *And hence if a great circle be perpen*
lar to ſeveral other great circles, and its repreſent
paſs thro' the center of projection; then all theſe
cles will be repreſented by lines parallel to one ano
and perpendicular to the line of meaſures or repr
tation of that firſt circle.

PROP. II.

39. *If two great circles interſect in the pole of pr*
tion; their repreſentations ſhall make an angle a
center of the plane of projection equal to the
made by theſe circles on the ſphere.

For ſince both theſe circles are perpendicul
the plane of projection; the angle made by
interſections with this plane, is the ſame as the
made by theſe circles. *Q. E. D.*

PROP. III.

Any leſſer circle parallel to the plane of project
projected into a circle, whoſe center is the pole of
jection; and radius the tangent of the circle's di
from the pole of projection.

39. Let the circle PI be parallel to the plane
then the equal arches PC, CI are projected int
equal tangents GC, CH; and therefore C
point of contact and pole of the circle PI ar
the projection, is the center of the repreſen
GH. *Q. E. D.*

Cor. *If a circle be parallel to the plane of p*
tion, and 45 degrees from the pole, it is projecte
a

i.p.34.

a circle equal to a great circle of the ſphere; and may Fig.
therefore be looked upon as the primitive circle in this projection, and its radius the radius of projection.

PROP. IV.

Every leſſer circle (not parallel to the plane of pro- 40.
jection) is projected into a conic ſection, whoſe tranſverſe axis is in the line of meaſures, and whoſe neareſt vertex is diſtant from the center of the plane the tangent of its neareſt diſtance from the pole of projection; and the other vertex is diſtant the tangent of its furtheſt diſtance.

Let BE be parallel to the line of meaſures *dp*, then any circle is the baſe of a cone whoſe vertex is at A, and therefore that cone being produced will be cut by the plane of projection in ſome conic ſection; thus the circle whoſe diameter is DF will be cut by the plane in an ellipſis whoſe tranſverſe is *df*; and C*d* is the tangent of CAD, and C*f* of CF. In like manner the cone AFE being cut by the plane, *f* will be the neareſt vertex; and the other point into which E is projected is at an infinite diſtance. Alſo the cone AFG (whoſe baſe is the circle FG) being cut by the plane *f* is the neareſt vertex; and GA being produced gives *d* the other vertex. *Q. E. D.*

Cor. 1. *If the diſtance of the furtheſt point of the circle be leſs than 90° from the pole of projection, then it will be projected into an ellipſis:*

Thus DF is projected into *df*, and DC being leſs than 90°, the ſection *df* is an ellipſis, whoſe vertices are at *d* and *f*; for the plane *df* cuts both ſides of the cone, *d*A, *f*A.

Cor. 2. *If the furtheſt point be more than 90 degrees from the pole of projection, it will be projected*

Fig. *into an hyperbola. Thus the circle* FG *is projected*
40. *an hyperbola whoſe vertices are f and d, and t*
verſe fd.

For the plane *dp* cuts only the ſide A*f* of the c

Cor. 3. *And in the circle* EF, *where the furt*
point E *is* 90° *from* C; *it will be projected into a*
rabola, whoſe vertex is f.

For the plane *dp* (cutting the cone FAE) is
rallel to the ſide AE.

Cor 4. *If H be the center, and* K, *k*, *l*, *the*
cus of the ellipſis, hyperbola, or parabola; then HK
$\frac{Ad - Af}{2}$ *for the ellipſis, and* H*k* = $\frac{Ad +}{2}$
for the hyperbola; and (drawing fn perpendicular
AE) *fl* = $\frac{nE + Ff}{2}$, *for the parabola; which*
the repreſentations of the circles DF, FG, FE
ſpectively.

This all appears from the Conic Sections.

PROP. V.

41. *Let the plane* TW *be perpendicular to the plane*
projection TV, *and* BCD *a great circle of the ſph*
in the plane TW. *And let the great circle* BED
projected in the right line bek. Draw CQS ⊥ *b*
and C*m* ∥ *to it and equal to* CA, *and make* QS = Q
then I ſay any angle Q*ſt* = Q*t*.

Suppoſe the hypothenuſe AQ to be drawn, th
ſince the plane ACQ is perpendicular to the pla
T*v*, and *b*Q is ⊥ to the interſection CQ, therefo
*b*Q is perpendicular to the plane ACQ, and conſ
quently *b*Q is perpendicular to the hypothenu
AQ. But AQ = Q*m* = Q*s*, and Q*s* is alſo perpe
dicular to *b*Q. Therefore all angles made at S c
the line *b*Q in the ſame points as the angles mad

Fig. 41. at A; but by the angles at A the circle BED is projected into the line *b*Q. Therefore the angles at *s* are the meaſures of the parts of the projected circle *b*Q; and *s* is the dividing center thereof. *Q. E. D.*

Cor. 1. *Any great circle t*Q*b is projected into a line of tangents to the radius* SQ.

For Q*t* is the tangent of the angle QS*t* to the radius QS or Q*m*.

Cor. 2. *If the circle b*C *paſs thro' the center of projection; then* A *the projecting point is the dividing center thereof. And* C*b is the tangent of its correſpondent arch* CB, *to* CA *the radius of projection.*

PROP. VI.

41. *Let the parallel circle* GEH *be as far from the pole of projection* C *as the circle* FKI *is from its pole* P; *and let the diſtance of the poles* C, P *be biſected by the radius* AO, *and draw b*AD *perpendicular to* AO; *then any right line bek drawn thro' b, will cut off the arches bl* = F*n, and ge* = *kf (ſuppoſing f the other vertex), in the repreſentations of theſe equal circles in the plane of projection.*

For let G, E, R, L, H, N, R, K, I be reſpectively projected into the points *g*, *e*, *r*, *l*, *h*, *n*, *r*, *k*, *f*. Then ſince in the ſphere, the arch BF = DH, and arch BG = DI. And the great circle BEKD makes the angles at B and D equal, and is projected into a right line as *bl*; therefore the triangular figures BFN and DHL are ſimilar, and equal; and likewiſe BGE, and DIK are ſimilar and equal, and LH = NF, and KI = EG; whence it is evident their projections *lh* = *n*F, and *kf* = *ge*. *Q. E. D.*

Fig.

PROP. VII.

42. *If blg and Enk be the projections of two equal circles, whereof one is as far from its pole* P *as the other from its pole* C; *which is the center of projection; and if the diſtance of the projected poles* C, *p be divided in o, ſo that the degrees in* C*o*, *op, be equal, and th perpendicular o*S *be erected to the line of meaſures gh. I ſay the lines pn,* C*l, drawn from the poles* C, *p thro' any point* Q *in the line o*S, *will cut off the arc* $Fn = < QCp$.

For drawing the great circle GPI, in a plane perpendicular to the plane of projection. The grea circle AO perpendicular to CP is projected int *o*S by Prop. I. Cor. 3. Now let Q be the projection of *q*, and ſince *p*Q, CQ are right line therefore they repreſent the great circles P*q*, C But the ſpherical triangle P*q*C is an iſosceles-triangle, and therefore the angles at P and C are equa But becauſe P is the pole of FI, therefore th great circle P*q* continued, will cut an arch off F $= < CPq = < PCq \pm < QCp$ by Prop. I That is (ſince F*n* repreſents the part cut off fro FI) arch $Fn =$ arch *lb* or $< QCb$. *Q. E. D.*

Cor. *Hence if from the projected pole p of any circle, a perpendicular be erected to the line of meaſure it will cut off a quadrant from the repreſentation that circle.*

For that perpendicular will be parallel to O Q being at an infinite diſtance.

PROP. VIII.

Let Fnk *be the projection of any circle* FI, *and* p *the projected pole* P. *And if* Cg *be the co-tangent of* CAP, *and* gB *perpendicular to the line of meaſures* gC, *and* CAP *be biſected by* AO, *and the line* oB, *be drawn to any point* B, *and alſo* pB *cutting* Fnk *in* d. *I ſay the angle* goB = *arch* Fd. 42.

For the arch PG is a quadrant, and the $\angle goA = \angle gpA + \angle oAp =$ (becauſe GCA and gAp are right angles) $gAC + oAp = gAC + CAo = \angle gAo$. Therefore $gA = go$, conſequently o is the dividing center of gB the repreſentation of GA; and conſequently by Prop. V. $\angle goB$ is the meaſure of gB. But ſince pq repreſents a quadrant, therefore p is the pole of gB, and therefore the great circle pdB paſſing thro' the pole of the circles gB and Fn will cut off equal arches in both, that is Fd = gB = $\angle goB$. *Q. E. D.*

Cor. *The* $\angle goB$ *is the meaſure of the angle* gpB.

For the triangle gpB repreſents a triangle on the ſphere wherein the arch which gB repreſents is equal to the angle which $\angle p$ repreſents, becauſe gp is 90 degrees. Therefore goB is the meaſure of both.

SCHOLIUM.

Thus far I have treated of the theory; what follows is the practical part, and depends altogether on what is above delivered, in which I think no difficulty can occur. In the Gnomonical Projection, the plane projected on, is ſuppoſed to touch the hemiſphere to be projected, in its vertex; and the point of contact will be *the center of projection.* But if it be required to project upon any plane pa-

rallel

Fig. 42. rallel to this touching plane, the proceſs will be no way different, and is only taking a greater or leſſer radius of projection, according to the greater or leſſer diſtance; which is in effect projecting a greater or leſſer ſphere upon its touching plane.

When you have the ſphere to project this way, upon a given plane; it will aſſiſt the imagination, if you ſuppoſe yourſelf placed in the center of the ſphere with your face towards the plane, whoſe poſition is given; and from thence projecting with your eye, the circles of the ſphere upon this plane.

PROP. IX. *Prob.*

43. *To draw a great circle, thro' a given point, and at a given diſtance from the pole of projection.*

Rule.

Deſcribe the circle ADB with the radius of projection, and thro' the given point P draw the righ line PCA, and CE perpendicular to it; make th angle CAE = given diſtance of the circle from C and thro' E deſcribe the circle EFG, and thro' I draw the line PK touching the circle in I, then i PIK the circle required.

By the plain Scale.

With the tangent of the circle's diſtance fron the pole of projection C, deſcribe the circle EIF and draw PK to touch this circle; and PIK is th circle required.

PROP. X. *Prob.*

43. *To draw a great circle perpendicular to a give great circle, which paſſes thro' the pole of projection and at a given diſtance from that pole.*

Rule.

Draw the primitive ADB. Let CI be the give circle, draw CL perpendicular to CI, and make th

ang

angle CLI = the given diſtance; thro' I draw KP Fig. parallel to CL for the circle required. 43.

By the Scale.

In the given circle CI, ſet the tangent of the given diſtance, from C to I; thro' I draw KP perpendicular to CI, then KP is the circle required.

PROP. XI. *Prob.*

To meaſure any part of a great circle; or to ſet any 44. *number of degrees thereon.*

Rule.

Let EP be the great circle; thro' C draw ID perpendicular to EP, and CB parallel to it. Let EBD be a circle deſcribed with the radius of projection CB, make IA = IB; then A is the dividing center of EP, conſequently drawing AP; the ∠ IAP = meaſure of the given arch IP.

Or if the degrees be given, make the ∠ IAP = theſe given degrees, which cuts off IP, the arch correſpondent thereto.

By the Scale.

Draw ICD perpendicular to EP; apply CI to the tangents, and ſet the ſemi-tangent of its complement from C to A, gives the dividing center of EP, &c.

PROP. XII. *Prob.*

To draw a great circle to make a given angle with 51. *a given great circle, at a given point; or to meaſure an angle made by two great circles.*

Rule.

Let P be the given point, and PB the given great circle. Draw thro' P, and C the center of projection, the line PCG, to which from C draw CA perpendicular,

Fig. dicular, and equal to the radius of projection. Draw
51. PA and AG perpendicular to it, at G erect BD perpendicular to GC, cutting PB in B; draw AO biſecting the angle CAP; then at the point O, make BOD = angle given, and from D draw the line DP, then BPD is the angle required.

Or if the degrees in the angle BPD be required, from the points B, D, draw the lines BO, DO; and the angle BOD is the meaſure of BPD.

Cor. *If an angle be required to be made at the pole or center of projection, equal to a given angle, this is no more than drawing two lines from the center making the angle required. And if one great circle be to be drawn* $\perp$ *to another great circle, it muſt be drawn thro' its pole.*

P R O P. XIII. *Prob.*

43. *To project a leſſer circle parallel to the primitive.*

Rule.

With the radius of projection AC, and center C, deſcribe the primitive circle ADB, by Cor. Prop. III. and draw ACB, and GCE perpendicular to it.

Set the circle's diſtance from its pole from B to H, and from H to D, and draw AFD. With radius CE deſcribe the circle EFG required.

By the Scale.

With the radius CE equal to the tangent of the circle's diſtance from its pole, deſcribe the circle EFG, for the circle required.

P R O P. XIV. *Prob.*

48. *To draw a leſſer circle perpendicular to the plane o projection.*

Rule.

Thro' the center of projection C, draw its parallel great circle TI. At C make the angle IC

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and TCO = the given circle's diſtance from its parallel great circle TI; make CL equal radius of projection, and draw LM perpendicular to CL. Set LM from C to V, or CM from C to F. Then thro' the vertex V between the aſſymptotes CN, CO deſcribe the hyperbola WVK. Or to the focus F, and ſemi-tranſverſe CV, deſcribe the hyperbola; for the circle required. Fig. 48.

Otherwiſe by Points.

Thro' the center of projection C draw the line of meaſures CF, and TCI perpendicular to it, draw any number of right lines CV, DE, GH, IK &c. and PQ, RS, TW, &c. perpendicular to TI. And by Prop. XI. make CV, DE, GH, &c. each equal to the diſtance of the given circle from its parallel great circle; then all the points W, S, Q, V, E, H, K, &c. joined by a regular curve will be the repreſentation of the circle required.

Or thus.

Make the angle *iak* = diſtance of the given circle from its parallel great circle. Then thro' the center of projection C, draw the great circle TCI parallel to the circle given, upon which erect the perpendicular CA = radius of projection. Alſo draw any number of right lines CV, DE, GH, IK, &c. perpendicular to TI. Then take each of the diſtances from A to C, D, G, I, &c. and ſet them from *a* to *c*, *g*, *d*, *i*, &c. and to *ai* draw the perpendiculars *cv*, *de*, *gh*, *ik*, &c. and make CV, DE, GH, IK, &c. reſpectively equal to *cv*, *de*, *gh*, *ik*, &c. which gives the points V, E, H, K, &c. after the ſame manner on the other ſide, find the points Q, S, W, &c. then thro' all theſe points W, S, Q, V, E, H, K, &c. draw a regular curve, which will be an hyperbola repreſenting the circle given.

By

Fig.

By the Scale.

48. Take the tangent of the circle's diſtance from its parallel great circle, and ſet it from C (the center of projection) to V, and the ſecant thereof from C to F. Then with the ſemi-tranſverſe CV, and focus F, deſcribe the hyperbola WVHK.

PROP. XV. *Prob.*

To project any leſſer oblique circle given.

Rule.

Draw the line of meaſures *dp*, and at C the
45. center of projection draw GA ⊥ to *dp* and = radius of projection; with the center A, deſcribe the circle DCFG; and draw RAE parallel to *dp*. Then take the greateſt and leaſt diſtances of the circle from the pole of projection and ſet from C, to D and F, for the circle DF; and from A, the projecting point, draw AF*f*, and AD*d*, then *df* will be the tranſverſe axis of the ellipſis. But if D fall beyond the line RE, as at G, then draw a line from G backward thro' A to D, and then *df* is the tranſverſe of an hyperbola. But if the point D fall in the line RE as at E, then the line AE no where meets the line of meaſures, and the projection of E is at an infinite diſtance, and then the circle will be projected into a parabola whoſe vertex is *f*. Laſtly, biſect *df* in H the center, and for the ellipſis take half the difference of the lines A*d*, A*f*, and ſet from H to K for the focus. But for the hyperbola take half the ſum of A*d*, A*f*, and ſet from H to the focus *k* of the hyperbola. Then with the tranſverſe *df* and focus K or *k* deſcribe the ellipſis *d*M*f*, or the hyperbola *fm*. For the projection of the circle given.

But for the parabola make EQ = F*f*, and draw *fn* ⊥ AQ, and ſet ½*n*Q from *f* to K the focus. Then

with

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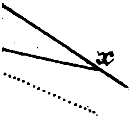

VIII. p. 44.

Fig. with the vertex *f* and focus *k* deſcribe the parabola *fm*, for the projection of the given circle FE.

Otherwiſe by Points.

49. Thro' the center of projection C, draw the line of meaſures CF, paſſing thro' the pole P (if P is given; but if not, find it, by ſetting off CP = the diſtance of that pole, from the center of projection, by Prop. XI.) then ſet off PD, PF equal to the given diſtance from its pole, by Prop. XI. Thro' P draw a ſufficient number of right lines, $L\lambda$, $M\mu$, Nn, Oo, Rr, Ss, &c. which will all repreſent great circles. Find the dividing centers of each of theſe lines; and by Prop. XI. ſet off upon each of them from P, the given diſtance of the circle from its pole, as PL, $P\lambda$, PM, $P\mu$, &c. and thro' all the points L, M, D, O, R, &c. draw a curve line, for the circle required.

Or thus.

49. Draw the line of meaſures PCG, and by Prop. XI. make CG = the diſtance of the parallel great circle from the pole of projection, and draw AGK perpendicular to it, which will repreſent a great circle whoſe pole is P. Draw any number of right lines thro' P to AK, as AP, BP, HP, &c. and by Prop. XI. ſet off from AK the parts AL, BM, HO, &c. each equal to the circle's diſtance from its parallel great circle. Then all the points L, M, D, O, &c. being joined by a regular curve, will repreſent the parallel circle required.

Or thus.

49. Thro' the center of projection C draw the line of meaſures DCF, and the radius of projection CW perpendicular to it, and AGK ⊥ GC, for a great circle whoſe pole is P. Draw *wp* = WP, and *wa* ⊥ to it, draw any number of right lines, AP, BP, GP, &c. and make *pg*, *pb*, *pa*, &c. = PG, PB, PA,

Fig. &c. alſo make the < *pwl* and *pwx* = the circle's 49. diſtance from its pole P (or *awl* = the diſtance from its parallel great circle); and upon PG, PB, PA, &c. make PD, PM, PL, &c. = *pd*, *pm*, *pl*, &c. reſpectively.

Or make GD, BM, AL, &c. = *gd*, *bm*, *al*, &c. After the ſame manner, find the points O, R, &c. and thro' all the points R, O, D, M, L, &c. draw a regular curve, making no angles, which will repreſent the parallel required. Likewiſe where any line *ap* cuts *wx*, that diſtance from *p* will give the point λ, or is = Pλ; and ſo of any other of the lines *bp*, *gp*, &c.

The reaſon of this proceſs will be plain, if you ſuppoſe the points p, w applied to P, W; *and g, b, a, &c. ſucceſſively to* G, B, A, &c. *for then d, m, l, will fall upon* D, M, L, &c.

By the Scale.

45. Take the tangents of the circle's neareſt and furtheſt diſtance from the pole of projection, and ſet from C to *f* and *d*, gives the vertices, and biſect *df* in H; then take half the difference, or half the ſum, of the ſecants of the greateſt and leaſt diſtances from the pole of projection, and ſet from H, to K or *k* for the focus of the ellipſis or hyperbola, which may then be deſcribed.

49. Cor. *If the curve be required to paſs thro' a given point* S; *meaſure* PS *by Prop.* XI, *and then the curve may be drawn by this Problem.*

PROP. XVI. *Prob.*

47. *To find the pole of any circle in the projection,* DMF.

Rule.

From the center of projection C, draw the radius of projection CA perpendicular to the line of meaſures DF. And to A the projecting point, draw DA, FA, and biſect the angle DAF by the line AP, then P is the pole. But if the curve be an hyperbola, as *fm*, *fig*. 45, you muſt produce *d*A, and biſect the angle *f*AG. And in a parabola, where the point *d* is at an infinite diſtance, biſect the angle *f*AE. Fig. 47.

Or thus; Drawing CA perpendicular to DC, draw DA, and make the angle DAP = the circle's diſtance from its pole, gives the pole P.

By the Scale.

Draw the radius of projection CA ⊥ to the line of meaſures DF. Apply CD CF to the tangents, and ſet the tangent of half the difference of their degrees from C to P, if D, F lye on contrary ſides of C; but half the ſum if on the ſame ſide, gives P the pole.

Or thus; By Prop. XI. ſet off from D to P, the circle's diſtance from its pole, gives the pole P.

Cor. *If it be a great circle as* BG; *draw the line of meaſures* GC, *and* CA ⊥ *to it, and equal to the radius of projection*; *make* GAP *a right angle, and* P *is the pole.* 46.

PROP. XVII. *Prob.*

To meaſure any arch of a leſſer circle; or to ſet any number of degrees thereon.

Rule.

Let F*n* be the given circle. From the center of projection C, draw CA perpendicular to the line of meaſures GH. To P the pole of the given circle draw AP, and AO biſecting the angle CAP. And draw AD perpendicular to AO. Deſcribe the circle G*l*H (by Prop. XIII.) as far from the pole of projection C, as the given circle is from its pole P. And thro' any given point *n* in the circle F*n*, 46.

Fig. draw D*nl*, gives H*l* the number of degrees = F*n*.
46. Or the degrees being given and ſet from H to *l*, the line D*l* cuts off F*n* equal thereto,

Or thus; AO being drawn as before, erect OS perpendicular to CO; thro' the given point *n* draw P*n* cutting OS in Q, then thro' Q draw C*l*, and the angle QCP is = F*n*. Or making QCP = the degrees given, draw PQ*n*, and arch F*n* = theſe degrees.

Or thus; AO, AP, being drawn as before, draw AG perpendicular to AP, and GB perpendicular to GC. Thro' the given point *n* draw PB cutting GB in B, and draw OB, then the < GOB = arch F*n*. Or making < GOB = the given degrees; draw PB, and it cuts off F*n* = the degrees given.

By the Scale.

Let C be the center of projection, P the pole of the given circle. Apply CP to the tangents, and ſet the tangent of its half from C to O, and the co-tangent of its half from C to D; with radius CG = tangent of the degrees in FP the given circle's diſtance from its pole, deſcribe the circle GSH. Then D*l* drawn thro' *n* or *l*, cuts off H*l* = F*n*.

Or thus; O being found as before, erect OS perpendicular to CO; thro' the given point *n* draw PQ*n*, and < QCH = F*n*.

Or thus; Apply CP to the tangents, and ſet the co-tangent thereof from C to G. Erect GB perpendicular to GC. Thro' *n* draw P*n*B, and draw BO; then < GOB = F*n*.

48. Cor. *If the leſſer circle be perpendicular to the plain of projection as* VHK. *You have no more to do but to draw the perpendiculars* VC, HG, *to its parallel great circle* CI. *Then* CG (*meaſured by Prop.* XI.) *will be equal to* VH; *or the degrees ſet from* C *to* G, *cuts off* VH *equal thereto.*

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Fig.

SCHOLIUM.

This ſort of projection is little uſed, by reaſon of several of the circles of the ſphere fall in ellipſes and hyperbolas, which are very difficult to deſcribe. Notwithſtanding it is very convenient for ſolving ſome Problems of the ſphere, becauſe all the great circles are projected into right lines. And this ſort, or the Gnomonic Projection is the very foundation of all dialling. For if the ſphere be projected on any plane, and upon that ſide of it on which the ſun is to ſhine; and the projected pole be made the center of the dial, and the axis of the globe the Stile or Gnomon, and the radius of projection its height; you will have a dial drawn with all its furniture. Upon this account it deſerves to be more taken notice of, than at preſent it is. I have in the foregoing propoſitions given, I think, all the fundamental principles of this kind of projection, having met with little or nothing done upon this ſubject before. 48.

GENERAL PROBLEM.

To project the ſphere upon any given plane.

Before you can project the ſphere upon any plane, you muſt have a perfect knowledge of all its circles, and their poſitions in reſpect of one another; the diſtances of the leſſer circles from their poles, and from their parallel great circles; the angles made by great circles, or their inclinations, to one another, particularly to the primitive circle, on whoſe plane (or a parallel thereto) you are about to project the ſphere. Then after the primitive circle is deſcribed; you muſt deſcribe all other circles concerned in the Problem, according to the rules of that ſort of Projection, you are going to uſe;

Fig. and the interſection of theſe circles will determine the Problem.

And note, that the Projection of the concave ſide of the ſphere is more fit for aſtronomical purpoſes; for in looking at the heavens, we view the concavity. But it is better to project the convex hemiſphere in geography, becauſe we ſee the convex ſide only.

The principal Points, Angles and Circles of the Sphere are as follows.

I. *Points.*

52. 1. *Zenith* is the point over our heads, Z.

53. 2. *Nadir* is the point under our feet, N.

55. 3. *Poles* of the world are 2 points, round which the diurnal revolution is performed, P the north pole, *p* the ſouth pole. A line drawn through the poles, is called the *Axis* of the world, as P*p*.

4. *The Center* of the earth or of the heavens, C.

5. *Equinoctial Points*, are the points of interſection of the Equator and Ecliptic, ♈, ♎.

6. *Solſtitial Points*, are the beginning of Cancer and Capricorn, ♋, ♑.

II. *Great Circles.*

1. *Equinoctial*, is a circle 90 degrees diſtant from the poles of the world, as EQ.

2. *Meridians*, or *hour Circles*; are circles paſſing thro' the poles of the world, as P ⊙ *p*, PE*p*, &c.

3. *Solſtitial Colure*, is a meridian paſſing thro' the ſolſtitial points, as P♋*p*.

4. *Equinoctial Colure*, is a meridian paſſing thro' the equinoctial points, P C*p*.

5. *Ecliptic* is the circle thro' which the ſun ſeems to move in a year, ♋ ♑; it cuts the equinoctial at an angle of 23° 30′, in paſſing thro' the equinoctial points. In this are reckoned the 12 Sines, ♈, ♉, ♊, ♋, ♌, ♍, ♎, ♏, ♐, ♑, ♒, ♓.

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6. *Horizon*, is a circle dividing the upper from Fig.
the lower hemiſphere, as HO, being 90° diſtant 52.
from the Zenith and Nadir. 53.

7. *Vertical Circles*, are circles paſſing thro' the 55.
Zenith and Nadir, Z☉N.

8. *Circles of Longitude* in the heavens, paſs thro' the poles of the ecliptic and cut it at right angles.

9. *Meridian of a Place*, is that Meridian which paſſes thro' the Zenith, as PZH.

10. *Prime Vertical*, is that which paſſes thro' the eaſt and weſt points of the horizon.

III. *Leſſer circles.*

1. *Parallels of Latitude* are parallel to the equinoctial on the earth, *parallels of altitude* are parallel to the horizon, *parallels of declination* are parallel to the equinoctial in the heavens.

2. *Tropics*, are 2 circles diſtant 23° 30′ from the equinoctial, the tropic of *Cancer* towards the north, the tropic of *Capricorn* towards the ſouth.

3. *Polar Circles*, are diſtant 23° 30′ from the poles of the world, the *Arctic* circle towards the north, the *Antarctic* towards the ſouth.

IV. *Angles and Arches of Circles.*

1. *Sun's* (or *Star's*) *Altitude*, is an arch of the Azimuth between the ſun and horizon, as ☉B.

2. *Amplitude* is an arch of the horizon, between ſun-riſing and the eaſt, or ſun-ſetting and the weſt.

3. *Azimuth*, is an arch of the horizon between the ſun's Azimuth circle, and the north or ſouth, as HB, or OB; or it is the angle at the zenith, HZB or OZB.

4. *Right Aſcenſion* is an arch of the equator between the ſun's meridian, and the firſt point of Aries, as ♈K.

5. *Aſcenſional Difference* is an arch of the equinoctial, between the ſun's meridian, and that point

Fig. of the equinoctial that riſes with him, or it is the
52. angle at the pole between the ſun's and the ſix o'clock
53. meridian.
55. 6. *Oblique Aſcenſion* or *Deſcenſion*, is the ſum or
difference of the right aſcenſion and the aſcenſional
difference.

7. *Sun's Longitude*, is an arch of the ecliptic, between the ſun and firſt part of Aries, as ♈ ☉.

8. *Declination* is an arch of the meridian, between the equinoctial and the ſun, as ☉K.

9. *Latitude of a Star*, is an arch of a circle of longitude between the ſtar and ecliptic.

10. *Latitude of a Plane*, in an arch of the meridian between the equinoctial and the place.

11. *Longitude* of a place on the earth is an arch of the equinoctial, between the firſt meridian (Iſle of *Ferro*), and the meridian of the place. And *diff. longitude*, is an arch of the equator, between the meridians of the two places, or the angle at the pole.

12. *Hour of the Day*, is an arch of the equinoctial, between the meridian of the place and the ſun's meridian, as EK; or it is the angle they make at the pole, as EPO.

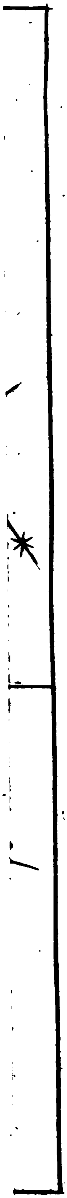
Example I.

To project the ſphere upon the plane of the meridian, for May 12, 1767. Latitude 54° ½ north, at a quarter paſt 9 o'clock before noon.

I. *By the Orthographic Projection.*

52. Here we will project the convex ſide of the eaſtern hemiſphere. With the chord of 60° degrees deſcribe the primitive circle or meridian of the place HZON. Thro' the center C draw the horizon HO; ſet the latitude $54\frac{1}{2}$ from O to P and from H to *p*, and draw P*p* the 6 o'clock meridian. Thro' C draw EQ perpendicular to P*p* for the equinoctial. Make ED, Q*d* 18° 5′ the declination May 12, and draw D*d* the ſun's parallel for that day. By

Prop.



2.

Fig. 52. Prop. XI. make ☉G ($3\frac{1}{4}$ hours or) 48° 45′ the ſun's diſtance from the hour of 6, then ☉ is the ſun's place. Thro' ☉ by Prop. V. draw AL parallel to H☉ for the ſun's parallel of altitude. By Prop. VII. draw the meridian P☉*p* and the azimuth Z☉N. Alſo the ecliptic will be an ellipſis paſſing thro' ☉, which cannot conveniently be drawn in this projection. Alſo draw the parallel S*s* 18° below the horizon, and where it interſects D*d* is the point of day break, if there is any. Now the ſun is at *d* at 12 o'clock at night, and riſes at R, at 6 o'clock is at G, due eaſt at F, at ☉ a quarter paſt 9, and is at D in the meridian at 12 o'clock.

Draw GI parallel to HO. Then GR meaſured by Prop. X. is 27° 14′, and turned into time (allowing 15 degrees for an hour) ſhows how long the ſun riſes before 6, to be $1^{h}\ 49^{m}$; GI meaſured by Prop. X. gives the azimuth at 6, 79° 16′. CR by Cor. Prop. X. gives the amplitude 32° 19′, and CF gives his altitude when eaſt 22° 25′. FG 13° 28′ (turned into time) is 54^{m}, and ſhews how long after 6 he is due eaſt. IO is his altitude at 6, 14° 38′. AH 41° 53′ is his altitude at ☉, or a quarter paſt 9; and ☉L meaſured by Prop. X. is his azimuth from the north at the ſame time, 122° 40′. And thus the place of the moon or a ſtar being given, it may be put into the projection, as at ✱. And its altitude, azimuth, amplitude, time of riſing, &c. may all be found, as before for the ſun.

II. *Stereographically.*

53. To project the ſphere on the plane of the meridian, the projecting point in the weſtern point of the horizon; with cord of 60, draw the primitive circle HZON, and thro' C draw HO for the horizon, and ZN perpendicular thereto for the prime vertical. Set the latitude from O to P, and from H to *p*, and draw P*p* the 6 o'clock meridian, and

Fig. EQ perpendicular thereto for the equinoctial. 53. Make ED, Q*d* the declination, and by Prop. XII. draw DG*d*, the ſun's parallel for the day. Draw the meridian P⊙*p* by Prop. XVII. making an angle of 41° 15′ with the primitive, to interſect the ſun's parallel in ⊙, the ſun's place at $9^h\frac{1}{4}$. Thro' ⊙, by Prop. XII. draw the parallel of altitude A⊙L; thro' ⊙ draw, by Prop. XVII. the azimuth Z⊙N. And by Prop. XII. draw the parallel S*sd* 18° below the horizon, if it cut R*d*, gives the point of day break. And thro' G draw the parallel of altitude GI. Laſtly, by Prop. XX. thro' ⊙ draw the great circle ♈⊙♎ cutting the equinoctial EQ at an angle of 23° : 30′, and this is the ecliptic, ♈ the firſt point of Aries, and ♎ that of Libra.

This done, *d*R meaſured by Prop. XXIII. is 62° 46′, ſhows the time of ſun riſing; CR by Prop. XXII. is the amplitude 32° 19′. GI 79° 16′ by Prop. XXIII. the ſun's azimuth at 6. IO 14° 38″ his altitude at 6. CF 22° 25′ by Prop. XXII. his altitude when eaſt. GF 13° 28′ the time when he is due eaſt. ⊙B 41° 53′ by Prop. XXII. his altitude at a quarter paſt 9; the ∠⊙ZP 122° 40′ by Prop. XXIV. his azimuth at that time. Alſo ♈⊙, by Prop. XXII. is his longitude 51° 7′. ♈K his right aſcenſion, 48° 40′.

And the place of the moon or a ſtar being given, it may be put into the ſcheme as at ✱; and its time of riſing, amplitude, azimuth, &c. found as before.

III. *Gnomonically.*

54. To project the eaſtern hemiſphere upon a plane parallel to the meridian. About the center of projection C deſcribe the circle HON with the tangent of 45 the radius of projection, for the primitive. Thro' C draw the horizon HO, and the prime vertical

Fig. 54. tical ZN perpendicular thereto. Set the latitude 54½ from H to *a*, and draw the 6 o'clock meridian P*p*, and the equinoctial EQ perpendicular to it. Set the tangent of 48° 45′ (equal to 3¼ hours) from C to E, and by Prop. X. draw the meridian EL parallel to P*p*. Make E*e* = E*a*, and < E*e* ⊙ = 18° 5′ the ſun's declination, then by Prop. XI. ⊙ is the ſun's place. Thro' ⊙ draw the hyperbola D⊙*d* (by Prop. XIV.) for the ſun's parallel of declination; and draw ⊙B perpendicular to HO, for his azimuth circle. And draw GI perpendicular to HO, and RM, FT, ‖ P*p*. Alſo the ecliptic is a right line paſſing thro' ⊙, and cutting EQ at an angle of 23° 30′, which is difficult to draw in this projection.

Alſo by Prop. XIV. Draw the parallel S*s* 18° below the horizon, and if it interſects D*d*, it gives the point of ſun riſe.

Then if by Prop. XVII. or XI. you meaſure GR or rather CM, 27° 14′, you have the time of ſun riſing; GF or CT 13° 28′, the time when he is due eaſt. Alſo by Prop. XI. if you meaſure CR you have the amplitude 32° 19′. CI the comp. of his azimuth at ſix, 10° 44′. IG by Prop. XII. his altitude at 6, 14° 38′. CF his altitude when eaſt, 22° 25′. And by Prop. XI. ⊙B = 41° 53′, his altitude a quarter paſt 9. CB the complement of his azimuth at that time, 32° 40′.

And the place of the moon or a ſtar being given, its place in the projection may be determined as before, and all the requiſites found.

Ex. 2.

To project the ſphere upon the plane of the ſolſtitial colure for latitude 54½ N. May 23, 1767, at 10 o'clock in the morning.

Stereogrophically.

Fig. 55. The projection of the weſtern hemiſphere, the firſt point of Libra, the projecting point. Deſcribe the ſolſtitial colure PE*p*Q, and the equinoctial colure P*p* perpendicular to it; and thro' C draw the equinoctial EQ perpendicular to P*p*. Set 23° 30 from E to ♋, and from Q to ♑, and draw the ecliptic ♋ ♑. Set the ſun's longitude 61° 42′ from C to ⊙, and thro' ⊙ draw P⊙K*p* for the 10 o'clock meridian. Make KA (two hours or) 30°, and draw PA*p* for the meridian of the place. Set the latitude of the place 54½ from A to Z, and Z is the zenith. About the pole Z deſcribe the great circle BHS for the horizon of the place. Thro' Z and ⊙ draw an azimuth circle Z⊙B.

Then you have ⊙K the ſun's declination 20° 33′, CK his right aſcenſion 59° 35′. ⊙B his altitude at 10 o'clock 49° 10′; the ∠ AZ⊙ or PZ⊙ his azimuth at 10 = HB, 45° 44′. H the ſouth point of the horizon. I the point of the ecliptic that is in the meridian. T the point of the ecliptic that is ſetting in the horizon.

Example. 3.

To project the ſphere on the plane of the horizon, Lat. 35½, *N. July* 31, 1767, *at* 10 *o'clock.*

Gnomonically.

56. To project the upper hemiſphere on a plane parallel to the horizon. With the radius of projection and center C, deſcribe the primitive circle ADB. Thro' C draw the meridian PE, and AS perpendicular to it for the prime vertical. Set off CP 35½ the latitude and P is the N. Pole, and perpendicular to CP draw P*p* the 6 o'clock meridian. Set the complement of the latitude from C to E; and draw EQ perpendicular to CE for the equinoc-

ast .

UNIV

equinoctial. Make EB 30° (or 2 hours) and draw the 10 o'clock meridian PB. Set the ſun's declination 18° 27′ from B to ☉. And ☉ is the place of the ſun at 10 o'clock. Thro' ☉ draw the azimuth circle CQ; likewiſe thro' ☉, a parallel to the equinoctial EQ may eaſily be deſcribed by Prop. XV. for the ſun's parallel that day. Fig. 50.

Then C☉ meaſured by Prop. XI. is 31° 30′ the complement of the altitude. And the angle EC☉ meaſured by Cor. Prop. XII. is his azimuth, 65° 10.

SCHOLIUM.

After this manner may any Problems of the Sphere be ſolved by any of theſe Projections, or upon any planes, but upon ſome more commodiouſly than upon others. And if in a ſpherical triangle any ſides or angles be required, they may be projected according to what is given therein, according to any of theſe kinds of projection before delivered; and it will be moſt eaſily done, when you chuſe ſuch a plane to project on, that ſome given ſide may be in the primitive, or a given angle at the center; and then you need draw no more lines or circles than what are immediately concerned in that Problem. But always chuſe ſuch a plane to project on, where the lines and circles are moſt eaſily drawn, and ſo that none of them run out of the ſcheme.

FINIS.

ERRATA.

b ſignifies reckon from the bottom.

pag	line	read
5	1	fig. 2.
8	18	fig. 5.
9	3b	off the ſines,
13	17	fig. 12.
14	2b	the 2 laſt lines ſhould be indented and roman.
	21	CpA + CAp;
15	3	the 3d line ſhould be indented, and the 3 following lines roman.
16	5	ECI = CAD
18	4	if, *p*, *q*, be
20	7	projection C,
21	15	$\frac{OG + OD}{2}$:
25	9b	points A, B, G,
29	6b	interſection *p*,
30	2	*g*C*t* required.
	11b	pole *p*, draw
33	17	of this circle
36	6b	TV, and
	2b	at *s* cut
38	2b	to *o*S ;
43	2	CL = radius
44	20	A to *d*,

Emerson, William

THE LAWS OF Centripetal and Centrifugal FORCE.

SHEWING,

The MOTION of BODIES in Circular Orbits, and
in the Conic Sections, and other Curves.

And explaining the perturbating Force of a third
Body. With many other Things of like Nature.

Being a Work preparatory to ASTRONOMY, and
the very Baſis thereof. And abſolutely neceſſary
to be known by all ſuch as deſire to be Proficients
in that SCIENCE.

Solis uti varios curſus, lunæque meatus
Noſcere poſſemus, quæ vis, & cauſa cieret.

LUCRET. Lib. V.

THE

PREFACE.

IN the following Treatiſe, I have explained and demonſtrated the Laws of Centripetel Forces; a doctrine upon which all Aſtronomy is grounded; and without the knowledge of which, no rational account can be given of the motions of any of the celeſtial bodies, as the Comets, the Planets, and their Satellites. From theſe laws are derived the cauſes of the various ſeeming irregularities obſerved in their motions; ſuch as their accelerations and retardations, their approaching to, and receding from the center of force; irregularity, only in appearance; but in reality, theſe motions are truly regular and conformable to the eſtabliſhed laws of Nature. From this foundation we trace the way or path of all the planets, and diſcover the origin and ſpring of all the celeſtial motions, and clearly underſtand and account for all the phænomena thence ariſing.

In the firſt ſection, you have the Centripetal Forces of bodies revolving in circles; their velocities, periodic times, and diſtances compared together; their relations and proportions to each other; and that when they either revolve about the ſame center, or about different ones. The different motions cauſed by different forces, or by different central attracting bodies, are here ſhewn. We have given likewiſe the periodic time of a ſimple pendulum revolving with a conical motion; and alſo the center of Turbination, and the periodic time of a compound pendulum, or a ſyſtem of bodies, revolving with a conical motion; as properly belonging to the doctrine of Centripetal Forces.

In the ſecond ſection we have ſhewn the motion of bodies in the Ellipſis, Hyperbola, and Parabola; and in other Curves. The proportion of the Centripetal Forces, and velocities in different parts of the ſame Curve. The law of Centripetal Force to deſcribe a given Curve, and the velo-

city in any point of it; and more particularly with reſpect to that law of Centripetal Force that is reciprocally as the ſquare of the diſtance; which is the grand law of Nature in regard to the action of bodies upon one another at a diſtance; and according to this law, is ſhewn the motion of bodies round one another, and round their common center of gravity, and the orbits they will deſcribe.

In the third ſection we have given the diſturbing or perturbating force of a third body, acting upon two others that revolve round one another. From theſe principles are deduced the errors cauſed in the motion of a Satellite, moving round its primary planet. Towards the end, are ſeveral propoſitions, by means whereof, the motion of the Nodes, and variation of inclination of a Satellite's orbit, and ſuch like things may be computed. As theſe things are all laid down for the ſake of underſtanding our own Syſtem, I have inſerted ſome few things, by way of illuſtration of the rules, in regard to the Moon and Jupiter. But as to the Moon, there are ſome things ſo very intricate, and require ſuch long and tedious calculations, as would require a volume of themſelves; ſo that the ſmall room I am confined to cannot admit of them; and few would trouble themſelves to read them, if they were there. This laſt ſection concludes with a few things of another kind, but depending on the principles of Centripetal Forces.

Several of theſe things about Centripetal Forces are calculated by the method of Fluxions; and cannot eaſily be done any other way; and moſt of them taken from my book of Fluxions. And ſeveral other things relating to Centripetal Forces, you will alſo find in that book; being ſorry to trouble the reader too much with repeating what I have written and publiſhed elſewhere.

W. Emerſon.

THE LAWS OF Centripetal and Certrifugal FORCE.

DEFINITIONS.

DEF. I.

THE center of attraction, is the point towards which any body is attracted or impelled.

DEF. II.

Centripetal force, is that force by which a body is impelled to a certain point, as a center. Here all the particles of the body are equally acted on by the force.

DEF. III.

Centrifugal force, is the reſiſtance a moving body makes to prevent its being turned out of its direct courſe. This is oppoſite and equal to the centripetal force; for action and re-action are equal and contrary.

DEF. IV.

Angular velocity, is the quantity of the angle a body deſcribes in a given time, about a certain point, as a center. *Apparent velocity* is the ſame thing.

DEF. V.

Periodical time, is the time of revolution of a body round a center.

SECT. I.

The motion of bodies in Circular ORBITS.

PROP. I.

Fig. *The centripetal forces, whereby equal bodies at equal diſtances from the centers of force, are drawn towards theſe centers; are as the quantities of matter in the central bodies.*

For ſince all attraction is made towards bodies, every part of the attracting body muſt contribute its ſhare in that effect. Therefore a body twice as great will attract the ſame body twice as much; and one thrice as great, thrice as much, and ſo on. Therefore the attraction of the central body; that is, the centripetal force, is as the quantity of matter in the attracting or central body.

Cor. 1. *Any body whether great or little, placed at the ſame diſtance, is attracted thro' equal ſpaces in the ſame time, by the central body.*

For tho' a body twice or thrice as great as another, is drawn with twice or thrice the force; yet it will acquire no greater velocity, nor paſs thro' a greater ſpace. For (Prop. V. Cor. 2. Mechan.) the velocity generated in a given time, is as the force directly, and quantity of matter reciprocally; and the force, which is the weight of the body, being as the quantity of matter; therefore the velocity generated is as the quantity of matter directly, and quantity of matter reciprocally, and therefore is a given quantity.

Cor. 2. *Therefore the centripetal force, or force towards the center, is not to be meaſured by the quantity of the falling body; but by the ſpace it falls thro' in a given time. And therefore it is ſometimes called an accelerative force.*

PROP. II.

If a body revolves in a circle, and is retained in it; by a centripetal force, tending to the center of it; put 1.
R = *radius of the circle or orbit deſcribed,* AC.
F = *abſolute force, at the diſtance* R.
s = *the ſpace, a falling body could deſcend thro', by the force at* A, *and*
t = *time of the deſcent.*
$\pi = 3.1416$.

Then its periodic time, or the time of one revolution will be $\pi t\sqrt{\frac{2R}{s}}$.

And the velocity, or ſpace it deſcribes in the time t, *will be* $\sqrt{2Rs}$.

For let AB be a tangent to the circle at A; take AF an infinitely ſmall arch, and draw FB perp. to AB, and FD perp. to the radius AC. Let the body deſcend thro' the infinitely ſmall hight AD or BF, by the centripetal force in the time 1. Now that the body may be kept in the circular orbit AFE, it ought to deſcribe the arch AF in the ſame time 1. The circumference of the circle AE is $2\pi R$, and the arch AF $= \sqrt{2R \times AD}$.

By the laws of falling bodies $\sqrt{s} : t :: \sqrt{AD} : t\sqrt{\frac{AD}{s}}$ = time of moving thro' AD or AF. And by uniform motion, as AF, to the time of its deſcription : : circumference AFEA, to the time of

Fig.

1. one revolution; that is, $\sqrt{2R \times AD} : t\sqrt{\frac{AD}{s}} ::$ $2\pi R$: periodic time $= \frac{2t\pi R}{\sqrt{2Rs}} = \pi t\sqrt{\frac{2R}{s}}$.

Alſo by the laws of uniform motion, $t\sqrt{\frac{AD}{s}}$ or time of deſcribing AF : AF or $\sqrt{2R \times AD} ::$ $t : \sqrt{2Rs} =$ the velocity of the body, or ſpace deſcribed in time t.

Cor. 1. *The velocity of the revolving body, is equal to that which a falling body acquires in deſcending thro' half the radius* AC, *by the force at* A *uniformly continued.*

For $\sqrt{s}$ (hight) : $2s$ (the velocity) :: $\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}R}$ (the hight) : $\sqrt{2Rs}$, the velocity acquired by falling thro' $\frac{1}{2}$ R.

Cor. 2. *Hence, if a body revolves uniformly in a circle, by means of a given centripetal force; the arch which it deſcribes in any time, is a mean proportional between the diameter of the circle, and the ſpace which the body would deſcend thro' in the ſame time, and with the ſame given force.*

For 2R (diameter) : $\sqrt{2Rs} :: \sqrt{2Rs} : s$; where $\sqrt{2Rs}$ is the arch deſcribed, and s the ſpace deſcended thro', in the time t.

2. Cor. 3. *If a body revolves in any curve* AFQ, *about the center of force s; and if* AC *or* R *be the radius of curvature in any point* A; $s =$ *ſpace deſcended by the force directed to* C. *Then the velocity in* A *will be* $\sqrt{2Rs}$.

For this is the velocity in the circle; and therefore in the curve, which coincides with it.

PROP.

PROP. III.

If ſeveral bodies revolve in circles round the ſame or different centers; the periodic times will be as the ſquare roots of the radii directly, and the ſquare roots of the centripetal forces reciprocally. 1.

Let F = centripetal force at A tending to the center C of the circle.
V = velocity of the body.
R = radius AC of the circle.
P = periodic time.

Then (Prop. II.) $P = \pi t \sqrt{\frac{2R}{s}}$. But s is as the force F that generates it; whence $P = \pi t \sqrt{\frac{2R}{F}}$, and ſince 2, π and t are given quantities, therefore $P \propto \sqrt{\frac{R}{F}}$.

Cor. 1. *The periodic times are as the radii directly, and the velocities reciprocally.*

For (Prop. II.) $V = \sqrt{2Rs} = \sqrt{2RF}$, and $V^2 = 2RF$, and $P = \pi t \sqrt{\frac{2R}{F}}$, and $PP = \pi^2 t^2 \times \frac{2R}{F}$, therefore $P^2 V^2 = \pi^2 t^2 \times 4R^2$, and $P^2 = \frac{\pi^2 t^2 \times 4R^2}{V^2}$, and $P = \frac{\pi t \times 2R}{V} \propto \frac{R}{V}$.

Cor. 2. *The periodic times are as the velocities directly, and the centripetal forces reciprocally.*

For $V^2 = 2Rs = 2RF$; and $R = \frac{VV}{2F}$, and $\frac{R}{V} = \frac{V}{2F} \propto \frac{V}{F}$. But (Cor. 1.) $P \propto \frac{R}{V} \propto \frac{V}{F}$.

Fig. 1. Cor. 3. *If the periodic times are equal; the velocities, and alſo the centripetal forces, will be as the radii.*

For if P be given; then $\frac{R}{F}$, and $\frac{R}{V}$, and $\frac{V}{F}$ are all given ratios.

Cor. 4. *If the periodic times are as the ſquare roots of the radii; the velocities will be as the ſquare roots of the radii, and the centripetal forces equal.*

For (Prop. III. and Cor. 1.) putting $\sqrt{R}$ for P, we have $\sqrt{R} \propto \sqrt{\frac{R}{F}} \propto \frac{R}{V}$. Therefore $1 \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{F}} \propto \frac{\sqrt{R}}{V}$, and $\sqrt{R} \propto V$, and $\sqrt{F}$ is a given quantity.

Cor. 5. *If the periodic times are as the radii; the velocities will be equal, and the centripetal forces reciprocally as the radii.*

For putting R for P, we have $R \propto \sqrt{\frac{R}{F}} \propto \frac{R}{V}$; whence $\sqrt{R} \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{F}}$, and $1 \propto \frac{1}{V}$; that is, $R \propto \frac{1}{F}$, or the centripetal force is reciprocally as the radius; and V is a given quantity.

Cor. 6. *If the periodic times are in the ſeſquiplicate ratio of the radii; the velocities will be reciprocally as the ſquare roots of the radii, and the centripetal forces reciprocally as the ſquares of the radii.*

Put $R^{\frac{3}{2}}$ for P, then $R^{\frac{3}{2}} \propto \sqrt{\frac{R}{F}} \propto \frac{R}{V}$; and $R \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{F}}$ or $RR \propto \frac{1}{F}$, and $\sqrt{R} \propto \frac{1}{V}$.

Cor. 7. *If the periodic times be as the nth power of the radius; then the velocities will be reciprocally as the n — 1th power of the radii, and the centripetal forces*

forces reciprocally as the $2n-1$*th power of the radii.* Fig. 1.

Put R^n for P, then $R^n \propto \sqrt{\frac{R}{F}} \propto \frac{R}{V}$. Whence $R^{2n} \propto \frac{R}{F}$, and $R^{2n-1} \propto \frac{1}{F}$. Alſo $R^{n-1} \propto \frac{1}{V}$.

PROP. IV.

If ſeveral bodies revolve in circles round the ſame or different centers; the velocities are as the radii directly, and periodic times reciprocally. 1.

For putting the ſame letters as in Prop. III. we have (by Prop. II.) $V = \sqrt{2Rs} = \sqrt{2RF}$; and $P \propto \frac{V}{F}$ (by Cor. 2. Pr. III.), and $PF \propto V$, and $F \propto \frac{V}{P}$. Whence $V = \sqrt{2RF} = \sqrt{2R \times \frac{V}{P}}$, and $V^2 = \frac{2RV}{P}$, and $V = \frac{2R}{P} \propto \frac{R}{P}$.

Cor. 1. *The velocities are as the periodical times, and the centripetal forces.*

For we had $PF \propto V$.

Cor. 2. *The ſquares of the velocities are as the radii and the centripetal forces.*

For $V = \sqrt{2RF}$.

Cor. 3. *If the velocities are equal; the periodic times are as the radii, and the radii reciprocally as the centripetal forces.*

For if V be given, its equal $\frac{R}{P}$ is a given ratio; and $\sqrt{RF}$ is given, whence $R \propto \frac{1}{F}$.

Fig. 1. Cor. 4. *If the velocities be as the radii, the periodic times will be the ſame; and the centripetal forces as the radii.*

For then V or R $\propto \frac{R}{P}$, and $1 \propto \frac{1}{P}$. Alſo R $= \sqrt{2RF}$, whence R $\propto$ F.

Cor. 5. *If the velocities be reciprocally as the radii; the centripetal forces are reciprocally as the cubes of the radii; and the periodic times as the ſquares of the radii.*

For put $\frac{1}{R}$ for V, then (Cor. 2.) $\frac{1}{R} = \sqrt{2RF}$, $\frac{1}{RR} = 2RF$, whence F $\propto \frac{1}{R^3}$. Alſo $\frac{1}{R} \propto \frac{R}{P}$, and P $\propto$ RR.

PROP. V.

1. *If ſeveral bodies revolve in circles about the ſame or different centers; the centripetal forces are as the radii directly, and the ſquares of the periodic times reciprocally.*

Put the ſame letters as in Prop. III. Then (Prop. II.) $P = \pi t \sqrt{\frac{2R}{s}} = \pi t \sqrt{\frac{2R}{F}}$, and $PP = \pi\pi tt \times \frac{2R}{F}$, and $PPF = 2\pi\pi ttR$; whence $F = \frac{2\pi\pi ttR}{PP} \propto \frac{R}{PP}$.

Cor. 1. *The centripetal forces are as the velocities directly, and the periodic times reciprocally.*

For (Prop. IV.) $V \propto \frac{R}{P}$, and $F \propto \frac{R}{PP} \propto \frac{V}{P}$.

Cor. 2. *The centripetal forces, are as the ſquares of the velocities directly, and the radii reciprocally.*

For (Cor. 1.) $F \propto \frac{V}{P}$, and $FP \propto V$. But (Prop. III. Cor. 1.) $P \propto \frac{R}{V}$, therefore $FP \propto \frac{FR}{V}$, therefore $\frac{FR}{V} \propto V$, and $F \propto \frac{VV}{R}$. Fig. 1.

Cor. 3. *If the centripetal forces are equal; the velocities are as the periodic times; and the radii as the ſquares of the periodic times, or as the ſquares of the velocities.*

Cor. 4. *If the centripetal forces be as the radii, the periodic times will be equal.*

For $F \propto \frac{R}{PP}$, and $\frac{F}{R} \propto \frac{1}{PP}$, and if $\frac{F}{R}$ be a given ratio, $\frac{1}{PP}$ will be given, as alſo P.

Cor. 5. *If the centripetal forces be reciprocally as the ſquares of the diſtances; the ſquares of the periodical times will be as the cubes of the diſtances; and the velocities reciprocally as the ſquare roots of the diſtances.*

For writing $\frac{1}{RR}$ for F, then $\frac{1}{RR} \propto \frac{R}{PP}$, and $\frac{R^3}{P^2}$ a given quantity. And $\frac{1}{RR} \propto \frac{VV}{R}$, and $\frac{1}{R} \propto VV$, or $\sqrt{\frac{1}{R}} \propto V$.

PROP. VI.

If ſeveral bodies revolve in circles, about the ſame or different centers; the radii are directly as the centripetal forces, and the ſquares of the periodic times. 1.

For (Prop. II.) putting the ſame letters as before, $P = \pi t \sqrt{\frac{2R}{s}} = \pi t \sqrt{\frac{2R}{F}}$, and $PP = \pi\pi tt \times \frac{2R}{F}$, and $PPF = 2\pi\pi ttR \propto R$.

Cor.

Fig. 1. Cor. 1. *The radii are directly as the velocities and periodic times.*

For (Prop. IV. Cor. 1.) $PF \propto V$, but $PPF \propto R$; therefore $PV \propto R$.

Cor. 2. *The radii are as the ſquares of the velocities directly, and the centripetal forces reciprocally.*

For (Prop. III. Cor. 2.) $P \propto \frac{V}{F}$, but (Cor. 1.) $R \propto PV$; therefore $R \propto \frac{VV}{F}$.

Cor. 3. *If the radii are equal; the centripetal forces are as the ſquares of the velocities, and reciprocally as the ſquares of the periodic times. And the velocities reciprocallly as the periodic times.*

For if R be given, $\frac{VV}{F}$, and PPF, and PV, are given quantities, and $F \propto VV$, or $F \propto \frac{1}{PP}$, and $V \propto \frac{1}{P}$.

SCHOLIUM.

The converſe of all theſe propoſitions and corollaries are equally true. And what is demonſtrated of centripetal forces, is equally true of centrifugal forces, they being equal and contrary.

PROP. VII.

1. *The quantities of matter in all attracting bodies, having others revolving about them in circles; are as the cubes of the diſtances directly, and the ſquares of the periodical times reciprocally.*

Let M be the quantity of matter in any central attracting body. Then ſince it appears, from all aſtronomical obſervations, that the ſquares of the periodical times are as the cubes of the diſtances, of the planets, and ſatellites from their reſpective centers.

Fig. 1. centers. Therefore (Cor. 6. Prop. III.) the centripetal forces will be reciprocally as the ſquares of the diſtances; that is, $F \propto \frac{1}{RR}$. And (Prop. I.) the attractive force at a given diſtance, is as the body M, therefore the abſolute force of the body M is as $\frac{M}{RR}$. And (Prop. V.) ſince $F \propto \frac{R}{PP}$, put $\frac{M}{RR}$ inſtead of F, and we have $\frac{M}{RR} \propto \frac{R}{PP}$, and $M \propto \frac{R^3}{P^2}$.

Cor. 1. *Hence inſtead of* F *in any of the foregoing propoſitions and their corollaries, one may ſubſtitute* $\frac{M}{RR}$, *which is the force that the attracting body in* C, *exerts at* A.

Cor. 2. *The attractive force of any body, is as the quantity of matter directly, and the ſquare of the diſtance reciprocally.*

PROP. VIII.

3. *If the centripetal force be as the diſtance from the center* C. *A body let fall from any point* A, *will fall to the center in the ſame time, that a body revolving in the circular orbit* ALEA, *at the diſtance* CA, *would deſcribe the quadrant* AGL.

The truth of this is very readily ſhewn by fluxions; thus, put AC $= r$, AH $= x$, $t =$ time of deſcribing AH, $v =$ the velocity at H. F $=$ force at H, which is as CH or $r - x$. Then (Mechan. Cor. 2. Prop. V.) the velocity generated is as the force and time; that is, $\dot{v} \propto F\dot{t}$. Alſo (Mechan. Prop. III. Cor. 1.) the time is as the ſpace divided by the velocity;

Fig. 3. ty; that is, $\dot{t} \propto \frac{\dot{x}}{v}$; therefore $\dot{v} \propto \frac{F\dot{x}}{v} \propto \overline{r -}$

and $v\dot{v} \propto \overline{r - x} \times \dot{x}$, and the fluent is $\frac{vv}{2} \propto$

$\frac{xx}{2}$, or $vv \propto 2rx - xx$, and $v \propto \sqrt{2rx - x}$
HG; that is, the velocity at H is as the ordi
HG of the circle.

Now it is evident, that in the time the rev
ing body deſcribes the infinitely ſmall arch AF,
falling body will deſcend thro' the verſed ſine
and would deſcribe twice AD in the ſame ti
with the velocity in D. Therefore we ſhall ha

velocity at F : velocity at D : : AF or FD : 2
and velocity at D : velocity at H : : AF or FD : G

therefore,

velocity at F or G : velocity at H : : AF^2 : 2AD
GH : : $\frac{AF^2}{2AD}$: GH : : CA or CG : GH. B
drawing an ordinate infinitely near GH; by t
nature of the circle, it will be, as GC : GH : :
the increment of the curve AG : to the increme
of the axis AH. And therefore, vel. at G : ve
at H : : as the increment of AG : to the increme
of AH. Therefore ſince the velocities are as t
ſpaces deſcribed, the times of deſcription will b
equal; and the ſeveral parts of the arch AGL ar
deſcribed in the ſame times as the correſponden
parts of the radius AHC. And by compoſition
the arch AG and abſciſſa AH, as alſo the quadran
AL and radius AC, are deſcribed in equal times.

Cor. 1. *The velocity of the deſcending body at any place* H, *is as the ſine* GH.

Cor. 2. *And the time of deſcending thro' any verſed ſine* AH, *is as the correſponding arch* AG.

Cor. 3. *All the times of falling from any altitudes whatever, to the center* C, *will be equal.* Fig. 3.

For theſe times are $\frac{1}{4}$ the periodic times; and (Prop. V. Cor. 4.) theſe periodic times are all equal.

Cor. 4. *In the time of one revolution, the falling body will have moved thro'* C *to* E, *and back again thro'* C *to* A, *meeting the revolving body again at* A.

Cor. 5. *The velocity of the falling body at the center* C, *is equal to the velocity of the revolving body.*

For the velocities are as the lines GH and GC; and theſe are equal, when G comes to L.

PROP. IX.

If a pendulum AB *be ſuſpended at* A, *and be made to revolve by a conical motion, and deſcribe the circle* BEDH *parallel to the horizon.* 4.

Put $\pi = 3.1416$; $p = 16\frac{1}{12}$ *feet, the ſpace deſcended by gravity in the time* t.

Then the periodical time of B *will be* $\pi t \sqrt{\frac{2AC}{p}}$.

For (Mechan. Prop. VIII.) if the axis AC repreſents the weight of the body, AB will be the force ſtretching the ſtring, and BC the force tending to the center C. Alſo (Mechan. Prop. VI.) if the time is given, the ſpace deſcribed will be as the force; whence $AC : BC :: p : \frac{BC}{AC} p =$ the ſpace deſcended towards C, by the force BC, in the time t. This is the ſpace s in Prop. II. Therefore inſtead of s put its value in the periodical time, and (by Prop. II.) we ſhall have the periodical time of the pendulum $= \pi\ t \sqrt{\frac{2R}{s}} = \pi\ t \sqrt{2BC \times \frac{AC}{BC \times p}}$

$$= \pi\ t \sqrt{\frac{2AC}{P}}.$$

Cor.

Fig. 4. Cor. 1. *In all pendulums, the periodic times are as the ſquare roots of the hights of the cones,* AC.

For π, t, and p are given quantities.

Cor. 2. *If the hights of the cones be the ſame, the periodic times will be the ſame, whatever be the radius of the baſe* BC.

Cor. 3. *The ſemiperiodic time of revolution, is equal to the time of oſcillation of a pendulum, whoſe length is* AC, *the hight of the cone.*

For by the laws of falling bodies, $t\sqrt{\frac{AC}{2p}} =$ time of falling thro' $\frac{1}{2}$ AC; and therefore (Mechan. Prop. XXIV.) $1 : \pi :: t\sqrt{\frac{AC}{2p}} : \pi t\sqrt{\frac{AC}{2p}} = \frac{1}{2}\pi t\sqrt{\frac{2AC}{p}}$, the time of vibration, which is half the periodical time.

Cor. 4. *The ſpace deſcended by a falling body, in the time of one revolution, will be* $\pi\pi \times 2AC$.

For tt (time) : p (hight) : : $\pi\pi tt \times \frac{2AC}{p}$ (per. time) : $\pi\pi \times 2AC =$ hight deſcended in that time.

Cor. 5. *The periodic time, or time of one revolution, is equal to* $\pi\sqrt{2} \times$ *time of falling thro'* AC.

For the time of falling thro' AC is $t\sqrt{\frac{AC}{p}}$.

Cor. 6. *The weight of the pendulum is to the centrifugal force; as the hight of the cone* AC, *to the radius of the baſe* CB. *And therefore when the hight* CA *is equal to the radius* CB; *the centripetal or centrifugal force is equal to the gravity.*

Fig. 5.

PROP. X.

Suppoſe a ſyſtem of bodies A, B, C, *to revolve with a conical motion about the axis* TR *perp. to the horizon, ſo as to keep the ſame ſide always towards the axis of revolution, and the ſame poſition among themſelves.*

To find the periodical time of the whole ſyſtem.

1. Let A, B, C be all ſituated in one plane paſſing thro' TR. From A, B, C let fall the perpendiculars A*a*, B*b*, C*c*, upon the axis TR. And let A, B, C repreſent the quantities of matter in the bodies A, B, C. Alſo put $h = 16\frac{1}{12}$ feet, the hight a body falls in the time t by gravity; $\pi = 3.1416$; P = the periodic time of the ſyſtem.

By the reſolution of forces, T*a* (gravity) : A*a* (force in direction A*a*) : : $h : \frac{Aa}{Ta}h$ = ſpace deſcended by A towards *a* in the time 1, which is as the velocity generated by the force A*a*. Therefore $\frac{Aa}{Ta}hA$ = motion generated in A in direction A*a*. And the force in direction A*a* to move the ſyſtem towards TR, by the power of the lever TA, is $\frac{Aa}{Ta}hA \times Ta$ or $Aa \times hA$. This is the centripetal force of the ſyſtem, ariſing from the gravity of A. In like manner the centripetal forces ariſing from B and C, will be $Bb \times hB$ and $Cc \times hC$.

By the laws of uniform motion, $P : 2\pi \times Aa :: t : \frac{2\pi t \times Aa}{P}$ = arch deſcribed by A in the time t. And $\frac{4\pi\pi tt \times Aa^2}{PP \times 2Aa}$ or $\frac{2\pi\pi tt \times Aa}{PP}$ = diſtance it is drawn from the tangent in that time, or as the velocity generated; and therefore $\frac{2\pi\pi tt \times Aa}{PP} \times A$

=

Fig. 5. = motion of A tending from the center *a*, by the revolution of the ſyſtem. And the force in direction *a*A, to move the ſyſtem from TR, by the power of the lever TA, will be $\frac{2\pi\pi tt \times Aa}{PP}$ A × T*a*. And this is the centrifugal force of the ſyſtem ariſing from the revolution of A. And in like manner the centrifugal forces ariſing from B and C, will be $\frac{2\pi\pi tt \times Bb}{PP}$ B × T*b*, and $\frac{2\pi\pi tt \times Cc}{PP}$ C × T*c*.

But becauſe the whole ſyſtem always keeps at the ſame diſtance from the axis TF, in its revolution; therefore the ſum of all the centripetal forces muſt be equal to the ſum of all the centrifugal forces. Whence $Aa \times bA = Bb \times bB + Cc \times bC = \frac{2\pi\pi tt}{PP} \times$ into $Aa \times Ta \times A + Bb \times Tb \times B + Cc \times Tc \times C$. And conſequently $P = \pi . t \sqrt{\frac{2}{b}} \times \frac{Aa \times Ta \times A + Bb \times Tb \times B + Cc \times Tc \times C}{Aa \times A + Bb \times B + Cc \times C}$.

2. If the bodies are not all in one plane, let N be the center of gravity of the bodies A, B, C. And thro' N draw the plane TNR; and from all the bodies, let fall perpendiculars upon that plane. Then the periodic time will be the ſame as if all the bodies were placed in theſe points where the perpendiculars cut the plane. For if *m* be one of the bodies, and *m*C perp. to the plane. Then the centripetal and centrifugal forces of *m* in direction *cm*, will be *cm* × *bm* and $\frac{2\pi\pi tt \times Tc}{PP}$ *m* × *mc*. But the force *cm* is divided into the two forces *c*C, C*m*. And all the forces C*m* deſtroy one another, becauſe the plane, TN*c*, paſſes thro' their center of gravity. Therefore the plane is only acted on by

the remaining force *c*C. So that the centripetal and centrifugal forces will be the ſame as before, when the body was placed in C; and the periodic time is the ſame. Fig. 5.

Cor. 1. *If* N*n be drawn from the center of gravity perp. to* TF; *then the periodic time of the ſyſtem,*

$$P = \pi t\sqrt{\frac{2}{b}} \times \frac{Ta \times Aa \times A + Tb \times Bb \times B + Tc \times Cc \times C}{Nn \times \overline{A + B + C}}.$$

For (Mechan. Prop. XXXV.) $Aa \times A + Bb \times B + Cc \times C = Nn \times \overline{A + B + C}$.

Cor. 2. *The length of a ſimple pendulum, making two vibrations, or an exceeding ſmall conical motion, in the ſame periodic time, will be*

$$\frac{Ta \times Aa \times A + Tb \times Bb \times B + Tc \times Cc \times C}{Nn \times \overline{A + B + C}}.$$

For let TO be the hight of the cone deſcribed by the pendulum; then (Prop. IX.) $PP = \frac{2\pi\pi tt}{b} \times TO$; therefore TO =

$$\frac{Ta \times Aa \times A + Tb \times Bb \times B + Tc \times Cc \times C}{Nn \times \overline{A + B + C}}.$$

Cor. 3. *If* TO *be the length of an iſocronal pendulum, then* O *is the center of gravity of all the peripheries deſcribed by* A, B, C; *each multiplied by the body; whether* A, B, C *be the places of the bodies, or the points of projection upon the plane* TNR.

For if $Aa \times A$, $Bb \times B$, $Cc \times C$ be taken for bodies, their center of gravity will be diſtant from T, the length

$$\frac{Ta \times Aa \times A + Tb \times Bb \times B + Tc \times Cc \times C}{Aa \times A + Bb \times B + Cc \times C}$$ (Me-

Fig. 5. chan. Prop. XXXV.) which is equal to TO by Cor. 2. and the peripheries are as the radii, A*a*, B*b*, C*c*.

Cor. 4. *If any of the bodies be on the contrary ſide of the axis* TR, *or above the point of ſuſpenſion* T; *that diſtance muſt be negative.*

Cor. 5. *If any line or plane figure be placed in the plane* TNR; *then the point* O, *which gives the length of the pendulum, will be the center of gravity, of the ſurface or ſolid, deſcribed in its revolution.*

SCHOLIUM.

The point O which gives the length of the iſocronal pendulum; is called the *center of turbination* or revolution. And the plane TNR paſſing thro' the center of gravity, the *turbinating plane.*

SECT.

SECT. II.

The motion of bodies in all ſorts of CURVE LINES.

PROP. XI.

THE areas, which a revolving body deſcribes by radii drawn to a fixed center of force, are proportional to the times of deſcription; and are all in the ſame immoveable plane. Fig. 6.

Let S be the center of force; and let the time be divided into very ſmall equal parts. In the firſt part of time let the body deſcribe the line AB; then if nothing hindered, it would deſcribe BK = AB, in the ſecond part of time; and then the area ASB = BSK. But in the point B let the centripetal force act by a ſingle but ſtrong impulſe, and cauſe the body to deſcribe the line BC. Draw KC parallel to SB, and compleat the parallelogram BKC*r*, then the triangle SBC = SBK, being between the ſame parallels; therefore SBC = SBA, and in the ſame plane. Alſo the body moving uniformly, would in another part of time deſcribe C*m* = CB; but at C, at the end of the ſecond part of time, let it be acted on, by another impulſe and carried along the line CD; draw *m*D parallel to CS, and D will be the place of the body after the third part of time; and the triangle SCD = SC*m* = SCB, and all in the ſame plane. After the ſame manner let the force act ſucceſſively at D, E, F, &c. And making D*n* = DC, and E*o* = ED, &c. and compleating the parallelograms as before;

Fig 6. before; the triangle CS*m* = CSD = DS*n* = DSE = ES*o* = ESF, &c. and all in the ſame immoveable plane. Therefore in equal times equal areas are deſcribed; and by compounding, the ſum of all the areas is as the time of deſcription. Now let the number of triangles be increaſed, and their breadth diminiſhed ad infinitum; and the centripetal force will act continually, and the figure ABCDEF, &c. will become a curve; and the areas will be proportional to the times of deſcription.

Cor. 1. *If a body deſcribes areas proportional to the times, about any point; it is urged towards that point by the centripetal force.*

For a body cannot deſcribe areas proportional to the times, about two different points or centers, in the ſame plane.

Cor. 2. *The velocity of a body revolving in a curve, is reciprocally as the perpendicular to the tangent, in that point of the curve.*

For the area of any of theſe little triangles being given; the baſe (which repreſents the velocity) is reciprocally as the perpendicular.

7. Cor. 3. *The angular velocity at the center of force, is reciprocally as the ſquare of its diſtance from that center.*

For if the ſmall triangles CSD and SBA be equal, they are deſcribed in equal times. The area CSD $= \frac{SC \times CQ}{2}$, and area SBA $= \frac{SB \times BP}{2}$; therefore $SC \times CQ = SB \times BP$. But the angle CSD : angle ASB : : $CQ : cq : : SC \times CQ : SC \times cq : : SB \times BP : SC \times cq$: : area SBA : area S*cq* : : $SB^2 : Sc^2$ or SC^2.

Fig. 8.

PROP. XII.

If a body revolving in any curve VIL, *be urged by a centripetal force tending towards the center* S; *the centripetal force in any point* I *of the curve will be as* $\frac{\dot{p}}{p^3\dot{d}}$; *where* p = *perpendicular* SP *on the tangent at* I, *and* d = *the diſtance* SI.

For take the point K infinitely near I, and draw the lines SI, SK; and the tangents IP, Kf; and the perpendiculars SP, Sf. Alſo draw Km, Kn parallel to SP, SI, and KN perp. to SI.

The triangles ISP, IKN, nKm, are ſimilar; as alſo IKm, IPq. Therefore Iq or IP : IK : : qP : Km. And PS : IP : : Km : mn. And IN : IK : : mn : nK. And multiplying the terms of theſe three proportions, IP × PS × IN : IK × IP × IK : : qP × Km × mn : Km × mn × nK. That is, PS × IN : IK² : : qP : nK $= \frac{\text{P}q \times \text{IK}^2}{\text{PS} \times \text{IN}}$. But (Mechan. Prop. VI.) the ſpace nK, thro' which the body is drawn from the tangent, is as the force and ſquare of the time; that is (Prop. XI.) as the force and ſquare of the area ISK, or as the force × SI² × KN², or becauſe SI × KN = twice the triangle ISK = IK × SP; therefore nK is as the force × IK² × PS². Therefore the force at I is as $\frac{n\text{K}}{\text{IK}^2 \times \text{PS}^2} = \frac{\text{P}q \times \text{IK}^2}{\text{PS} \times \text{IN} \times \text{IK}^2 \times \text{PS}^2} = \frac{\text{P}q}{\text{PS}^3 \times \text{IN}} = \frac{\dot{p}}{p^3\dot{d}}$.

Cor. 1. *The centripetal force at* I *is as* $\frac{n\text{K}}{\text{SI}^2 \times \text{KN}^2}$, *or as* $\frac{n\text{K}}{\text{SP}^2 \times \text{IK}^2}$.

Fig. 8. Cor. 2. *Hence the radius of curvature in* I, *is* $= \frac{SI \times IN}{Pq}$.

For that radius $= \frac{IK^2}{Km} =$ (by the ſimilar triangles IK*m*, I*q*P) $\frac{IK \times IP}{Pq} =$ (by the ſimilar triangles IPS, INK) $\frac{SI \times IN}{Pq}$.

PROP. XIII. *Prob.*

To find the law of the centripetal force, requiſite to make a body move in a given curve line.

Let the diſtance SI $= d$, the perpendicular SP (upon the tangent at I) $= p$; then from the nature of the curve, find the value of p in terms of d, and ſubſtitute it and its fluxion, in the quantity $\frac{\dot{p}}{p^3\dot{d}}$.

Or find the value of $\frac{nK}{SI^2 \times KN^2}$ or $\frac{nK}{SP^2 \times IK^2}$.
Any of theſe will give the law of centripetal force, by the laſt Prop.

Ex. 1.

9. *If a body revolves in the circumference of a circle; to find the force direćted to a given point* S.

Draw SI to the body at I, SP perp to the tangent PI, SG perp. to the radius CI. Then SP $=$ GI; becauſe SGIP is a parallelogram. Put SI $= d$, SP $= p$, SC $\pm a$, CI $= r$, CD $= x$, ID being perp. to SD. Then in the obtuſe angle SCI, $SI^2 = SC^2 + CI^2 + 2SCD$, or $dd = aa + rr + 2ax$; whence $x = \frac{dd - aa - rr}{2a}$. The triangles SCG and CID are ſimilar, whence CI (r) : CD

(x)

(x) : : SC (a) : CG $= \frac{ax}{r} = \frac{dd - aa - rr}{2r}$; and Fig. 9.
$p = r + \frac{dd - aa - rr}{2r} = \frac{dd + rr - aa}{2r}$; and
$\dot{p} = \frac{d\dot{d}}{r}$. Therefore the force $\left(\frac{\dot{p}}{p^3\dot{d}}\right)$ is as $\frac{d\dot{d}}{rp^3\dot{d}} =$
$\frac{d}{rp^3} = \frac{d \times 8r^3}{r \times \overline{dd + rr - aa}^3}$; that is, the force is as
$\frac{d}{\overline{dd + rr - aa}^3}$.

And if $a = r$, the force is as $\frac{1}{d^5}$.

Ex. 2.

If a body revolves in an ellipſis; to find the force tending to the center C. 10.

Let $\frac{1}{2}$ tranſverſe CV $= r$, $\frac{1}{2}$ conjugate CD $= c$; draw CI $= d$, and its ſemiconjugate CR $= b$. Then by the properties of the ellipſis (Con. Sect. B. I. Prop. XXXIV.) $bb + dd = rr + cc$, whence $b = \sqrt{rr + cc - dd}$; and (ib. Prop. XXXVII.) b or $\sqrt{rr + cc - dd} : c : : r : p = \frac{cr}{\sqrt{rr + cc - dd}}$; and $\dot{p} = \frac{crd\dot{d}}{\overline{rr + cc - dd}|^{\frac{3}{2}}}$. Therefore $\frac{\dot{p}}{p^3\dot{d}} = \frac{crd\dot{d}}{\overline{rr + cc - da}|^{\frac{3}{2}}} \times \frac{\overline{rr + cc - dd}|^{\frac{3}{2}}}{c^3r^3\dot{d}} = \frac{d}{ccrr}$. Therefore the force is directly as the diſtance CI.

After the ſame manner, the force tending to the center of an hyperbola, will be found $\frac{-d}{ccrr}$, which is a centrifugal force, directly as the diſtance.

Ex. 3.

If a body revolves in an ellipſis, to find the law of centripetal force, tending to the focus S. 11.

Fig. 11. Let the ſemitranſverſe OV $= r$, the ſemiconjugate OD $= c$, draw SI $= d$; and OI, and its conjugate OK $= b$.

Then (Con. Sect. B. I. Prop. XXXV.) $2rd - dd = bb$; and (ib. Prop. XXXVI.) b or $\sqrt{2rd - dd} : c :: d : p = \frac{cd}{\sqrt{2rd - dd}}$; and $\dot{p} =$

$$\frac{c\dot{d}\sqrt{2rd - dd} - cd \times \overline{2rd - dd}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \times \overline{r\dot{d} - d\dot{d}}}{2rd - dd} =$$

$$\frac{c\dot{d} \times \overline{2rd - dd} - cd \times \overline{r\dot{d} - d\dot{d}}}{\overline{2rd - dd}^{\frac{3}{2}}} = \frac{crd\dot{d}}{\overline{2rd - dd}^{\frac{3}{2}}}.$$

Therefore $\frac{\dot{p}}{p^3\dot{d}} = \frac{crd\dot{d} \times \overline{2dr - dd}^{\frac{3}{2}}}{c^3d^3\dot{d} \times \overline{2dr - dd}^{\frac{3}{2}}} = \frac{crd}{c^3d^3} = \frac{r}{ccdd}.$

Therefore the centripetal force is as $\frac{1}{dd}$, or reciprocally as the ſquare of the diſtance.

Ex. 4.

12. *If a body revolves in the hyperbola* VI; *to find the law of centripetal force, tending to the focus* S.

Draw SI, and the tangent IT, and SP perp. upon it. And let the ſemitranſverſe SO $= r$, ſemiconjugate $= c$, SI $= d$, SP $= p$, and $b =$ ſemiconjugate to IO.

Then (Con Sect. B. II. Prop. XXXI.) $2rd + dd = bb$, and $b = \sqrt{2rd + dd}$. And (ib. Prop. XXXII.) b or $\sqrt{2rd + dd} : c :: d : p = \frac{cd}{\sqrt{2rd + dd}}$; whence $\dot{p} =$

$$\frac{c\dot{d} \times \sqrt{2rd + dd} - cd \times \overline{2rd + dd}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \times \overline{r\dot{d} + d\dot{d}}}{2rd + dd}$$

$$= \frac{c\dot{d} \times \overline{2rd + dd} - cd \times \overline{r\dot{d} + d\dot{d}}}{\overline{2rd + dd}^{\frac{3}{2}}} = \frac{crd\dot{d}}{\overline{2rd + dd}^{\frac{3}{2}}}.$$

Therefore $\frac{\dot p}{p^3\dot d} = \frac{crd\dot d\times\overline{2rd+dd}|^{\frac12}}{\overline{2rd+dd}|^{\frac32}\dot d\times c^3d^3} = \frac{crd}{c^3d^3} =$ Fig. 12.

$\frac{r}{ccdd}$. Therefore the centripetal force is as $\frac{r}{ccdd}$ or $\frac{1}{dd}$; that is, reciprocally as the ſquare of the diſtance.

And in like manner the force towards the other focus F, is $\frac{-r}{ccdd}$, or as $\frac{-1}{dd}$, which is a centrifugal force reciprocally as the ſquare of the diſtance.

Ex. 5.

If a body revolves in the parabola VI; *to find the force tending to the focus* S. 13.

Draw IS, and the tangent IT, and SP perp. to it. And put SI $= d$, SP $= p$, latus rectum $= r$. Then (Con. Sect. B. III. Prop. II. and Cor. 3. Prop. XII.) $pp = \frac14 rd$, and $2p\dot p = \frac14 r\dot d$; and $\dot p = \frac{r\dot d}{8p} = \frac{r\dot d}{4\sqrt{rd}}$. And $\frac{\dot p}{p^3\dot d} = \frac{r\dot d}{4\sqrt{rd}\times\frac18 rd\sqrt{rd}\times\dot d} = \frac{8r}{4rrdd} = \frac{2}{rdd}$. Therefore the centripetal force is reciprocally as the ſquare of the diſtance CI.

Hence, in all the Conic Sections, the centripetal force tending to the focus, is reciprocally as the ſquare of the diſtance from the focus.

Ex. 6.

Let VI *be the logarithmic ſpiral, to find the force tending to the center* S. 14.

Draw the tangent IP, and SP perp. to it, let SI $= d$, SP $= p$; then the ratio of d to p is always

Fig. 14. ways given, ſuppoſe as m to n. Then $p = \frac{n}{m}d$, and $\dot{p} = \frac{n}{m}\dot{d}$. Conſequently $\frac{\dot{p}}{p^3\dot{d}} = \frac{n\dot{d}}{m} \times \frac{m^3}{n^3d^3\dot{d}} = \frac{mm}{nnd^3}$; and the centripetal force is as $\frac{1}{d^3}$, or reciprocally as the cube of the diſtance.

PROP. XIV.

15. *The velocity of a body moving in any curve* QAO, *in any point* A; *is to the velocity of a body moving in a circle at the ſame diſtance; as* $\sqrt{p\dot{d}}$ *to* $\sqrt{d\dot{p}}$. *Putting* d = *diſtance* SA, *and* p = SP *the perpendicular on the tangent at* A.

Let AR be the radius of curvature; from the point a in the curve infinitely near A, draw am, an parallel to AS, AR. Let C = velocity in the curve, c = velocity in the circle. By ſimilar triangle SP (p) : SA (d) : : an : am : : centripetal force tending to R : centripetal force tending to S : : (Prop. V. Cor. 2.) $\frac{CC}{AR} : \frac{cc}{AS}$. But (Prop. XII. Cor. 2.) AR $= \frac{d\dot{d}}{\dot{p}}$; whence $p : d :: \frac{CC\dot{p}}{d\dot{d}} : \frac{cc}{d} :: CC\dot{p} : cc\dot{d}$. And $p\dot{d} : d\dot{p} :: CC : cc$.

Cor. 1. *If* r = *half the tranſverſe axis of an ellipſis; then the velocity of a body revolving round the focus, is to that in a circle at the ſame diſtance; as* $\sqrt{2r - d} : \sqrt{r}$.

For $\dot{p} = \frac{cr d\dot{d}}{\overline{2rd - dd}|^{\frac{3}{2}}}$ (See Ex. 3. Prop. XIII.),

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and $p = \frac{cd}{\sqrt{2rd - dd}}$. And the ſquares of the velocities in the curve, and in the circle, are as $\frac{cd\dot{d}}{\sqrt{2rd - dd}}$ and $\frac{crdd\dot{d}}{\overline{2rd - dd}|^{\frac{3}{2}}}$, or as 1 and $\frac{rd}{2rd - dd}$, or as $2r - d$ to r. Fig. 15.

Cor. 2. *Suppoſe as before, the velocity of a body revolving round the center of an ellipſis, is to the velocity in a circle at the ſame diſtance; as half the conjugate diameter to that diſtance, is to the diſtance.*

For $p = \frac{cr}{\sqrt{rr + cc - dd}}$, and $\dot{p} = \frac{crd\dot{d}}{\overline{rr + cc - dd}|^{\frac{3}{2}}}$. Whence, the ſquares of theſe velocities are as $\frac{cr\dot{d}}{\sqrt{rr + cc - dd}}$ and $\frac{crdd\dot{d}}{\overline{rr + cc - dd}|^{\frac{3}{2}}}$ or as 1 to $\frac{dd}{rr + cc - dd}$ or as $rr + cc - dd$ to dd, or as bb to dd. See Ex. 2. Prop. XIII.

Cor. 3. *The velocity in a parabola round the focus, is to the velocity in a circle at the ſame diſtance; as* $\sqrt{2}$ *to* 1.

For $p = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{rd}$, and $\dot{p} = \frac{r\dot{d}}{4\sqrt{rd}}$ (See Ex. 5. Prop. XIII.) Whence the ſquares of theſe velocities are as $\frac{1}{2}\dot{d}\sqrt{rd}$ and $\frac{rd\dot{d}}{4\sqrt{rd}}$, or as $\frac{1}{2}rd$ to $\frac{1}{4}rd$; that is as 2 to 1.

Cor. 4. *The velocity of a body in the logarithmic ſpiral in any point, is the ſame as the velocity of a body at the ſame diſtance in a circle.*

For

Fig. 15. For $p = \frac{n}{m}d$, and $\dot{p} = \frac{n}{m}\dot{d}$, (Ex. 6. Prop. XIII.)

And the ſquares of the velocities are as $\frac{n}{m}d\dot{d}$ and $\frac{n}{m}d\dot{d}$, that is, equal.

PROP. XV. *Prob.*

16. *To find the force which acting in direction of the ordinate* MP, *ſhall cauſe the body to move in that curve.*

Draw *mp* parallel and infinitely near MP, and M*s* parallel to AP. Then the force is as the ſpace *mr*, thro' which it is drawn from the tangent, in a given time. But *ms* is the fluxion and *mr* the ſecond fluxion of the ordinate PM. Therefore making the fluxion of the time conſtant; or which is the ſame thing, making the fluxion of the axis conſtant; find the ſecond fluxion of the ordinate, which will be as the force.

Ex. 1.

Let the curve be an ellipſis whoſe equation is $y = \frac{c}{r}\sqrt{2rx - xx}$. Putting AP $= x$, PM $= y$, $r =$ ſemitranſverſe, $c =$ ſemiconjugate. Then $\dot{y} = \frac{c}{r} \times \frac{r\dot{x} - x\dot{x}}{\sqrt{2rx - xx}}$, and $\ddot{y} = \frac{c}{r} \times \frac{-\dot{x}\sqrt{2rx - xx}}{2rx - xx}$

$$\frac{-\frac{c}{r} \times \overline{r - x} \times \overline{r\dot{x} - x\dot{x}} \times \overline{2rx - xx}^{-\frac{1}{2}}}{2rx - xx} = \frac{c}{r} \times$$

$$\frac{-2rx + xx - \overline{r - x}^2}{\overline{2rx - xx}^{\frac{3}{2}}} = \frac{c}{r} \times \frac{-rr}{\overline{2rx - xx}^{\frac{3}{2}}} = \frac{-cr}{y^3}$$

That is, the force is as $\frac{-1}{y^3}$, or reciprocally as the cube of the ordinate. The ſame is true of the Fig. circle, which is one ſort of ellipſis. 16.

Ex. 2.

Let the curve be a parabola, AP $= x$, PM $= y$, and $rx = yy$; then $r\dot{x} = 2y\dot{y}$, and $2\dot{y}\dot{y} + 2y\ddot{y} = 0$; therefore $y\ddot{y} = -\dot{y}\dot{y}$, and $\ddot{y} = -\frac{\dot{y}\dot{y}}{y} = -\frac{rr\dot{x}\dot{x}}{4yy \times y} = \frac{-rr}{4y^3}$, and the force as $\frac{-1}{y^3}$, or reciprocally as the cube of the ordinate.

PROP. XVI.

If the law of centripetal force be reciprocally as the ſquare of the diſtance. The velocities of bodies revolving in different ellipſes about one common center; are directly as the ſquare roots of the parameters, and reciprocally as the perpendiculars to the tangents at theſe points of their orbits.

Let d, D be the diſtances in two ellipſes; r, c, l, p; and R, C, L, P, the ſemitranſverſe, ſemiconjugate, latus rectum, and perpendicular in the two ellipſes. Then the ſquares of the velocities in two circles whoſe radii are d, D, (by Prop. IV. Cor. 2.) will be as $d \times$ force in d, and D $\times$ force in D; that is, as $\frac{d}{dd}$ and $\frac{D}{DD}$ or as $\frac{1}{d}$ and $\frac{1}{D}$:

Then (Prop. XIV. Cor. 1.),

velocity in the ellipſis d : vel. in the circle $d :: \sqrt{2r - d} : \sqrt{r}$.

and vel. in the circle d : vel. in the circle D $:: \sqrt{\frac{1}{d}} : \sqrt{\frac{1}{D}}$.

And (Prop. XIV. Cor. 1.)

vel. in the circle D : vel. in the ellipſis D $:: \sqrt{R} : \sqrt{2R - D}$.

Therefore vel. in the ellipſis d : vel. in the ellipſis D ::

Fig. $D :: \sqrt{\frac{\overline{2r-d}\times R}{d}} : \sqrt{\frac{\overline{2R-D}\times r}{D}} :: \sqrt{\frac{2r-d}{dr}} : \sqrt{\frac{2R-D}{DR}}$.

But (Con. Sect. B. I. Prop. 36.) $p = c\sqrt{\frac{d}{2r-d}}$, and $p\sqrt{\frac{2r-d}{d}} = c$, and $\sqrt{\frac{2r-d}{d}} = \frac{c}{p}$, and $\sqrt{\frac{2r-d}{dr}} = \frac{c}{p\sqrt{r}} = \frac{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}l}}{p}$ (becauſe $\frac{cc}{r} = \frac{1}{2}l$ by the Conic Sections.) In like manner $\sqrt{\frac{2R-D}{DR}} = \frac{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}L}}{P}$. Whence, vel. in the ellipſis d : vel. in the ellipſis $D :: \frac{\sqrt{l}}{p} : \frac{\sqrt{L}}{P}$.

Cor. 1. *Hence the velocities in the two ellipſis, are as* $\sqrt{\frac{2r-d}{dr}}$, *and* $\sqrt{\frac{2R-D}{DR}}$.

Cor. 2. *Alſo the ſquares of the areas deſcribed in the ſame time, are as the parameters.*

For the areas are as the arches × perpendiculars, or as the velocities × perpendiculars; that is, as $\frac{\sqrt{l}}{p}\times p$ and $\frac{\sqrt{L}}{P}\times P$, or as $\sqrt{l}$ and $\sqrt{L}$.

Cor. 3. *The velocity of a body in different parts of its orbit is reciprocally as the perpendicular upon the tangent at that point; and therefore is as* $\sqrt{\frac{2r-d}{d}}$.

For the parameter is given.

Cor. 4. *The velocity in a conic ſection at its greateſt or leaſt diſtance, is to the velocity in a circle at the*

the ſame diſtance; as the ſquare root of the parameter, to the ſquare root of twice that diſtance. Fig.

For here $d = D = p = P$, and $L = 2D$. Therefore the velocity in the ellipſis, to the velocity in the circle; as $\frac{\sqrt{l}}{P} : \frac{\sqrt{2D}}{P} :: \sqrt{l} : \sqrt{2D}$.

Cor. 5. *The velocity in an ellipſis at its mean diſtance, is the ſame as in a circle at the ſame diſtance.*

For if d be the mean diſtance, then $p = c$. And if D be the radius of the circle, then $L = 2D$, and $P = D$. Whence, vel. in the ellipſis : to the vel. in the circle $:: \frac{\sqrt{l}}{c} : \frac{\sqrt{2D}}{D} ::$ (becauſe $cc = \frac{1}{2}lr$) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}r}} : \frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}D}} :: \sqrt{D} : \sqrt{r}$. But $D = r$, therefore the velocities are equal.

Cor. 6. *Both the real and apparent velocity round* 17.
the focus F, *is greateſt at* A, *the neareſt vertex; and leaſt at* B, *the remote vertex.*

For the real velocity is reciprocally as the perpendicular, which is leaſt at A and greateſt at B. And the apparent velocity at F is reciprocally as the ſquare of the diſtance from F, which diſtance is leaſt at A, and greateſt at B, (Cor. 2. and 3. Prop. XI.)

Cor. 7. *The ſame things ſuppoſed, and* PC, CK 23.
being ſemiconjugates; the velocity in the curve, is to the velocity towards the focus F; *as* CK *to* $\sqrt{CK^2 - CD^2}$.

For vel. in the curve : vel. towards F $:: Pp : pn :: FP : NP :: d : \sqrt{dd - pp}$. But $pp = \frac{ccd}{2r - d}$, and $dd - pp = \frac{2rd - dd - cc}{2r - d} d$. Whence vel. in the curve : vel. towards F $:: d :$

$\sqrt{}$

Fig. 23. $\sqrt{\frac{2rd-dd-cc}{2r-d}}\,d :: \sqrt{2rd-dd} : \sqrt{2rd-dd-cc}$: : (Con. Sect. B. I. Prop. XXXV.) CK : $\sqrt{CK^2-CD^2}$.

Cor. 8. *The aſcending or deſcending velocity is the greateſt when* FP *is half the latus rectum, or when* FP *is perp. to* AB.

For $\sqrt{2rd-dd} : \sqrt{2rd-dd-cc}$: : vel. in the curve $\left(\frac{\sqrt{2r-d}}{d}\right)$: vel. towards F $=\sqrt{\frac{2rd-dd-cc}{dd}}$, and making the ſquare of this velocity a maximum, then $\frac{2rd-dd-cc}{dd}=m$, and $\overline{2r\dot{d}-2d\dot{d}}\times dd-2d\dot{d}\times\overline{2rd-dd-cc}=0$; and $rd-dd-2rd+dd+cc=0$, and $-rd+cc=0$. whence $d=\frac{cc}{r}=$ half the latus rectum.

Cor. 9. *If* FR, *the diſtance from the focus to the curve be* $=\sqrt{CA\times CD}$; *then* R *is the place where the angular motion about the focus* F, *is equal to the mean motion.*

For the area of a circle whoſe radius FR is $=\sqrt{CA\times CD}$ is equal to the area of the ellipſis; and if we ſuppoſe them both deſcribed in equal times; then the ſmall equal parts at R will be deſcribed in equal times; and therefore the angular velocities at F will be equal; and both equal to the mean motion. The angular motion in the ellipſis from B to R will be ſlower; and from R to A ſwifter, than the mean motion.

PROP. XVII.

If the centripetal forces be reciprocally as the ſquares of the diſtances; the periodic times in ellipſes, will be in the ſeſquiplicate ratio of the tranſverſe axes AB; *or the ſquares of the periodic times, will be as the cubes of the mean diſtances* FD, *from the common center.* 17.

Put the ſimbols as in the laſt, and t, T, for the periodical times. Then by the nature of the ellipſis $cc = \frac{1}{2}lr$, and $c = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}lr}$, and $rc = r\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}lr}$. And for the ſame reaſon $\mathrm{RC} = \mathrm{R}\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\mathrm{LR}}$. Alſo (Prop. XVI. Cor. 2.) the areas deſcribed in the ſame time are as the ſquare roots of the parameters; and therefore the whole areas of the ellipſes, are as the periodical times multiplied by the ſquare roots of the parameters. But the whole areas are alſo as the rectangles of the axes; therefore the rectangles of the axes are as the periodical times multiplied by the ſquare roots of the parameters; that is, rc or $r\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}lr} : \mathrm{RC}$ or $\mathrm{R}\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\mathrm{LR}} :: t\sqrt{l} : \mathrm{T}\sqrt{\mathrm{L}}$. And ſquaring, $\frac{1}{2}lr^3 : \frac{1}{2}\mathrm{LR}^3 :: ttl : \mathrm{TTL}$. That is, $r^3 : \mathrm{R}^3 :: tt : \mathrm{TT}$. And $t : \mathrm{T} :: r^{\frac{3}{2}} : \mathrm{R}^{\frac{3}{2}} :: \overline{2r}^{\frac{3}{2}} : \overline{2\mathrm{R}}^{\frac{3}{2}}$.

Cor. 1. *The areas of the ellipſes are as the periodic times multiplied by the ſquare roots of the parameters.*

Cor. 2. *The periodic time in an ellipſis, is the ſame as in a circle, whoſe diameter is equal to the tranſverſe axis* AB; *or the radius equal to the mean diſtance* FD.

Cor. 3. *The quantities of matter in central attracting bodies, that have others revolving about them in ellipſes; are as the cubes of the mean diſtances, divided by the ſquares of the periodical times.*

Fig. 17. For (Cor. 2.) the periodic times are the ſame when the mean diſtances are equal to the radii; and the reſt follows from Prop. VII.

PROP. XVIII.

18. *If the centripetal forces be directly as the diſtances; the periodic times of bodies moving in ellipſes round the ſame center, will be all equal to one another.*

Let AEL be an ellipſis, AGL a circle on the ſame axis AL, C the center of both. Draw the tangent AD, and *np*F parallel to it, and D*n*, B*p* parallel to AC: AF being very ſmall. Then D*n* equal to B*p* will be as the centripetal force; and therefore AD and AB, or A*n* and A*p* will be deſcribed in the ſame time, in the circle and ellipſis. Conſequently the areas deſcribed in theſe equal times will be A*n*C and A*p*C. But theſe areas are to one another as *n*F to PF, or as GC to EC; that is, as the area of the circle AGL to the area of the ellipſis AEL. Therefore ſince parts proportional to the wholes are deſcribed in equal times; the wholes will be deſcribed in equal times. And therefore the periodic times, in the circle and ellipſis, are equal.

But (Prop. V. Cor. 4.) the periodic times in all circles are equal, in this law of centripetal force; and therefore the periodic times in all ellipſes are equal.

Cor. *The velocity at any point* I *of an ellipſis, is as the rectangle of the two axes* AC, CE; *divided by the perpendicular* CH, *upon the tangent at* I.

For the arch I × CH is as the area deſcribed in a ſmall given part of time, and that is as the whole area (becauſe the periodic times are equal) or as AC × CE. And therefore the arch I or the velocity, is as $\frac{AC \times CE}{CH}$.

Fig. 18.

PROP. XIX.

The denſities of central attracting bodies, are reciprocally as the cubes of the parallaxes of the bodies revolving about them (as ſeen from theſe central bodies), and reciprocally as the ſquares of the periodic times.

For the denſity multiplied by the cube of the diameter, is as the quantity of matter; that is (by Prop. XVII. Cor. 3.) as the cube of the mean diſtance divided by the ſquare of the periodical time of the revolving body. And therefore the denſity is as the cube of the diſtance, divided by the cube of the diameter, and by the ſquare of the periodic time. But the diameter divided by the diſtance is as the angle of the paralax; therefore the denſity is as 1 divided by the cube of the paralax, and the ſquare of the periodic time.

PROP. XX.

If two bodies A, B, *revolve about each other; they will both of them revolve about their center of gravity.* 19.

Let C be the center of gravity of the bodies A, B, acting upon one another by any centripetal forces. And let AZ be the direction of A's motion; draw BM parallel to AZ, for the direction of B. And let AZ, BH be deſcribed in a very ſmall part of time, ſo that AZ may be to BH, as AC to BC; and then C will be the center of gravity of Z and H, becauſe the triangles ACZ and BCH are ſimilar. Whence AC : CB : : ZC : CH. But as the bodies A and B attract one another, the ſpaces A*a* and B*b* they are drawn thro', will be reciprocally

Fig. 19. as the bodies, or directly as the diſtances from the center of gravity; that is, A*a* : B*b* : : AC : BC. Compleat the parallelograms A*c* and B*d*; and the bodies, inſtead of being at Z and H, will be at *c* and *d*. But ſince AC : BC : : A*a* : B*b*. By diviſion AC : BC : : *a*C : *b*C. But AC : BC : : AZ : BH : : *ac* : *bd*. Whence *a*C : *b*C : : *ac* : *bd*. Therefore the triangles *c*C*a*, and *d*C*b* are ſimilar, whence C*c* : C*d* : : *ac* : *bd* : : AC : BC : : B : A. Therefore C is ſtill the center of gravity of the bodies at *c* and *d*.

In like manner, producing B*d* and A*c*, till *dg* be equal to B*d*, and *cq* to A*c*; and if *cf*, *db*, be the ſpaces drawn thro' by their mutual attractions; and if the parallelograms *ce*, *di*, be compleated. Then it will be proved by the ſame way of reaſoning, that C is the center of gravity of the bodies at *q* and *g*, and alſo at *e* and *i*, where A deſcribes the diagonals A*c*, *ce*, &c. and B the diagonals B*d*, *di*, &c. and ſo on ad infinitum.

If one of the bodies B is at reſt whilſt the other moves along the line AL. Then the center of gravity C will move uniformly along the line CO parallel to AL. Therefore if the ſpace the bodies move in, be ſuppoſed to move in direction CO, with the velocity of the center of gravity; then the center of gravity will be at reſt in that ſpace, and the body B will move in direction BH parallel to CO or AZ; and then this caſe comes to the ſame as the former. Therefore the bodies will always move round the center of gravity, which is either at reſt, or moves uniformly in a right line.

If the bodies repel one another; by a like reaſoning it may be proved that they will conſtantly move round their center of gravity.

If the lines CA, C*c*, C*e*, &c. be equal; and CB, C*d*, C*i*, &c. alſo equal. Then it is the caſe of two bodies joined by a rod or a ſtring; or of one body compoſed of two parts. This body or Fig. 19. bodies will always move round their common center of gravity.

Cor. 1. *The directions of the bodies in oppoſite points of the orbits, are always parallel to one another.*

For ſince AZ : Zc : : BH : Hd; and AZ, Zc parallel to BH, Hd; therefore the $\angle$ ZAc = $\angle$ HBd, and Bd parallel to Ac. And for the ſame reaſon di is parallel to ce, &c.

Cor. 2. *Two bodies, acting upon one another by any forces; deſcribe ſimilar figures about their common center of gravity.*

For the particles Ac, Bd of the curves are parallel to one another, and every where proportional to the diſtances of the bodies AC, BC.

Cor. 3. *If the forces be directly as the diſtances; the bodies will deſcribe concentrical ellipſes round the center of gravity.*

Cor. 4. *If the forces be reciprocally as the ſquares of the diſtances; the bodies will deſcribe ſimilar ellipſes or ſome conic ſections, about each other, whoſe center of gravity is in the focus of both.*

PROP XXI.

If two bodies S, P *attract each other with any* 20. *forces, and at the ſame time revolve about their center of gravity* C. *Then if either body* P, *with the ſame force, deſcribes a ſimilar curve about the other body* S *at reſt; its periodical time, will be to the periodical time of either about the center of gravity; as the ſquare root of the ſum of the bodies* ($\sqrt{S+P}$), *to the ſquare root of the fixed or central body* ($\sqrt{S}$).

Let PV be the orbit deſcribed about C, and Pv that deſcribed about S. Draw the tangent Pr, take the

Fig. 20. the arch PQ extremely ſmall, and draw CQR; alſo draw Sqr parallel to CR, and then PQ and Pq will be ſimilar parts of the curves PV and Pv.

Now the times that the bodies are drawn from the tangent thro' the ſpaces QR, qr, with the ſame force, will be as the ſquare roots of the ſpaces QR, qr; that is (becauſe of the ſimilar figures CPRQ and SPrq) as $\sqrt{CP}$ to $\sqrt{SP}$; that is, (by the nature of the center of gravity) as $\sqrt{S}$ to $\sqrt{S+P}$. But the times wherein the bodies are drawn from the tangent thro' RQ, rq, are the times wherein the ſimilar arches PQ, Pq are deſcribed; and theſe times are as the whole periodic times. Therefore the periodic time in PV, is to the periodic time in Pv; as $\sqrt{S}$ to $\sqrt{S+P}$.

Cor. 1. *The velocity in the orbit* PV *about* C, *is to the velocity in the orbit* Pv *about* S; *as* $\sqrt{S}$ *to* $\sqrt{S+P}$.

For the velocities are as the ſpaces divided by the times; therefore, vel. in PV : vel. in Pv :: $\frac{PQ}{\sqrt{S}} : \frac{Pq}{\sqrt{S+P}} :: \frac{CP}{\sqrt{S}} : \frac{SP}{\sqrt{S+P}} :: \frac{S}{\sqrt{S}} : \frac{S+P}{\sqrt{S+P}}$ $:: \sqrt{S} : \sqrt{S+P}$.

Cor. 2. *Bodies revolving round their common center of gravity, deſcribe areas proportional to the times.*

PROP. XXII.

20. *If the forces be reciprocally as the ſquares of the diſtances; and if a body revolves about the center* L *in the ſame periodical time, that the bodies* S, P, *revolve about the center of gravity* C. *Then will* SP : LP :: $\sqrt[3]{S+P} : \sqrt[3]{S}$.

Let PN be the orbit deſcribed about L. Then (Prop. XXI.) per. time in PQ : per. time in Pq :: $\sqrt{S}$:

$\sqrt{S} : \sqrt{S+P} :: \sqrt{CP} : \sqrt{SP}$. And (Prop. XVII.) Fig. 20. per. time in Pq : per. time in PN :: $SP^{\frac{3}{2}} : LP^{\frac{3}{2}}$; ſuppoſing PQ, PN, ſimilar arches. Therefore per. time in PQ : per. time in PN :: $\sqrt{CP} \times SP^{\frac{3}{2}} : \sqrt{SP} \times LP^{\frac{3}{2}} :: \sqrt{CP \times SP^2} : \sqrt{LP^3}$. But the periodic times are equal; therefore $\sqrt{CP \times SP^2} = \sqrt{LP^3}$, and $LP^3 = CP \times SP^2$, and $LP = \sqrt[3]{CP \times SP^2}$. But $LP : SP :: \sqrt[3]{CP \times SP^2} : SP$ or $\sqrt[3]{SP^3} :: \sqrt[3]{CP} : \sqrt[3]{SP} :: \sqrt[3]{S} : \sqrt[3]{S+P}$.

Cor. 1. *If the forces be reciprocally as the ſquares of the diſtances; the tranſverſe axis of the ellipſis deſcribed by* P *about the center of gravity* C, *is to the tranſverſe axis deſcribed by* P *about the other body* S *at reſt, in the ſame periodical time; as the cube root of the ſum of the bodies* S + P, *to the cube root of the fixed or central body* S.

Cor. 2. *If two bodies attracting each other move about their center of gravity. Their motions will be the ſame as if they did not attract one another, but were both attracted with the ſame forces, by another body placed in the center of gravity.*

PROP. XXIII. *Prob.*

Suppoſe the centripetal force to be directly as the 21. *diſtance. To determine the orbit which a body will deſcribe, that is projected from a given place* P, *with a given velocity, in a given direction* PT.

By Ex. 2. Prop. XIII. the body will move in an ellipſis, whoſe center is C the center of force; and the line of direction PT will be a tangent at the point P. Draw CR perp. to PT. And let the diſtance CP = d. CR = p, ſemitranſverſe axis

Fig. 21. CA $= R$, ſemiconjugate axis CB $= C$. CG (the ſemiconjugate to CP) $= B$. $f =$ ſpace a body would deſcend at P, in a ſecond, by the centripetal force. $v =$ the velocity at P, the body is projected with, or the ſpace it deſcribes in a ſecond. Then $\sqrt{2df} =$ velocity of a body revolving in a circle at the diſtance CP.

Then (Prop. XIV. Cor. 2.) $v : \sqrt{2df} :: B : d$, and $B\sqrt{2df} = dv$, and $2BBdf = ddvv$, whence $BB = \frac{dvv}{2f}$, and $B = v\sqrt{\frac{d}{2f}}$. But (Con. Sect. B. I. Prop. XXXIV.) $RR + CC = BB + dd = \frac{vvd}{2f} + dd$. And (ib. Prop. XXXVII.) $CR = Bp = pv\sqrt{\frac{d}{2f}}$. Therefore $RR + CC + 2RC = \frac{vvd}{2f} + dd + 2pv\sqrt{\frac{d}{2f}}$, and $R + C = \sqrt{\frac{vvd}{2f} + dd + 2pv\sqrt{\frac{d}{2f}}} = m$. Alſo $RR + CC - 2RC = \frac{vvd}{2f} + dd - 2pv\sqrt{\frac{d}{2f}}$, and $R - C = \sqrt{\frac{vvd}{2f} + dd - 2pv\sqrt{\frac{d}{2f}}} = n$. Therefore $R = \frac{m+n}{2}$, and $C = \frac{m-n}{2}$.

Then to find the poſition of the tranſverſe axis AD. Let F, S be the foci. Then (by Con. Sect. B. I. Prop. II. Cor.) we ſhall have SC or CF $= \sqrt{RR - CC}$. Put FP $= x$; then SP $= 2R - x$, and (ib Prop. XXXV.) SP × PF or $2Rx - xx = BB$, and $RR - 2Rx + xx = RR - BB$, and $R - x = \pm\sqrt{RR - BB}$; whence $x = R \pm \sqrt{RR - BB}$; that is, the greater part FP $= R +$

$\surd$

Fig. 21. $\sqrt{RR - BB}$, and the leſſer part SP $=$ R $-$ $\sqrt{RR - BB}$. Then in the triangle PCF or PCS, all the ſides are given, to find the angle PCF or PCA.

Cor. *The periodical time in ſeconds, is* 3.1416 $\sqrt{\frac{2d}{f}}$.

For arch $\sqrt{2df}$: time 1″ :: circumference 3.1416 $\times\, 2d$: 3.1416 $\sqrt{\frac{2d}{f}}$ the periodical time in a circle whoſe radius is d. And by Prop. XVIII. the periodical time is the ſame in all circles and ellipſes.

PROP. XXIV. *Prob.*

22. *Suppoſing the centripetal force reciprocally as the ſquare of the diſtance; to determine the orbit which a body will deſcribe; that is, projected from a given place* P, *with a given velocity, in a given direction* PT.

By Prop. XIII. the body will move in a conic ſection, whoſe focus is S the center of force. And the line of direction PT will be a tangent at the point P. Let the diſtance SP $= d$, tranſverſe axis AD $= z$. $f =$ ſpace a body will deſcend at P, in a ſecond, by the centripetal force. $v =$ the velocity the body is projected with from P, or the ſpace it deſcribes in a ſecond. Then $\sqrt{2df}$ is the velocity of a body revolving in a circle, at the diſtance SP.

Then (Prop XIV. Cor. 1.) $v : \sqrt{2df} :: \sqrt{z - d} : \sqrt{\tfrac{1}{2}z}$. Whence $v\sqrt{\tfrac{1}{2}z} = \sqrt{2dfz - 2ddf}$, and $vvz = 4dfz - 4ddf$; and $4dfz - vvz = 4ddf$, whence $z = \frac{4ddf}{4df - vv} =$ AD. And PH $= z - d = \frac{dvv}{4df - vv}$. Therefore if $4df$ is greater than vv, Fig. 12. vv, z is affirmative, and the orbit is an ellipſis. But if leſſer, z is negative, and the curve is a hyperbola, and if equal, 'tis a parabola.

Draw SR perp. to PT, and let SR $= p$. Alſo draw from the other focus H, HF perp. to PT. Then (Con. Sect. B. I. Prop. X.) the angle SPR $=$ angle HPF, whence the triangles SPR, HPF are ſimilar; therefore SP (d) : SR (p) :: HP $(z - d)$: HF $= \frac{z-d}{d}p$; and (ib. Prop. XXI.) SR $\times$ HF or $\frac{z-d}{d}pp =$ rectangle DHA or CB^2, the ſquare of half the conjugate axis; therefore CB $=$ $p\sqrt{\frac{z-d}{d}}$.

In the triangle SPH, the angle SPH and the ſides SP, PH are given, to find the angle PSH, the poſition of the tranſverſe axis.

Cor. 1. *The periodical time in the ellipſis* APDB $= 3.1416 \times \frac{4ddf}{\overline{4df - vv}|^{\frac{3}{2}}}$.

For $3.1416\sqrt{\frac{2d}{f}} =$ periodic time in the circle whoſe radius is d. And (Prop. XVII.) $\overline{2d}|^{\frac{3}{2}} : 3.1416\sqrt{\frac{2d}{f}} :: z^{\frac{3}{2}}$: period. time in the ellipſis $= 3.1416$ $\sqrt{\frac{2d}{f}} \times \overline{\frac{z}{2d}}|^{\frac{3}{2}} = 3.1416 \times \frac{4ddf}{\overline{4df - vv}|^{\frac{3}{2}}}$.

Cor. 2. *The latus rectum of the axis* AD *is* $= \frac{ppvv}{ddf}$.

Cor. 3. *Hence the tranſverſe axis and the periodic time will remain the ſame, whatever be the angle of direction* SPT.

For

For no quantities but d, f, and v are concerned; all which are given. Fig. 22.

SCHOLIUM.

Some people have dreamed that there may be a ſyſtem of a ſun and planets revolving about it, within any ſmall particle of matter; or a world in miniature. But this cannot be; for though matter is infinitely diviſible; yet the law of attraction of the ſmall particles of matter, not being as the ſquares of the diſtances reciprocally, but nearer the cubes; therefore the revolution of one particle of matter about another, cannot be performed in an ellipſis, but in ſome other curve; where it will continually approach to or recede from the center; and ſo at laſt will loſe its motion. Such motion as theſe can be nothing like that of a ſun and planets.

PROP. XXV.

If a body revolves in the circumference of a circle ZPA, *in a reſiſting medium, whoſe denſity is given. To find the force at any place* P, *tending to the center* C; *as alſo the time, velocity, and reſiſtance. Suppoſing the reſiſtance as the ſquare of the velocity.* 24.

Draw PC, and dp parallel and infinitely near it, cutting the tangent Pd in d. And put $CZ = r$, $ZP = z$, time of deſcribing $ZP = t$, velocity at $P = v$, reſiſtance $= R$, $f =$ force at P, $g =$ force of gravity at Z, $c =$ velocity in Z. And let a body moving uniformly with the velocity 1, thro' the ſpace 1, in the time 1, meet the reſiſtance 1 in the medium. And let a body deſcend thro' the ſpace a, by the force g at Z, in the ſame time 1.

1. By the laws of uniform motion, the ſpace is as the time × velocity. Whence 1 (ſpace) : 1×1 (time × vel.) : : $\dot{z} : v\dot{t} = \dot{z}$, whence $\dot{t} = \frac{\dot{z}}{v}$.

2. By

Fig. 24. 2. By the nature of the circle, $dp = \frac{\dot{z}^2}{2r} = \frac{vv\dot{t}\dot{t}}{2r}$.

3. By accelerated motion, the ſpace is as the force × ſquare of the time; whence $g \times 1^2$ (force × time^2) : a (ſpace) : : $f\dot{t}\dot{t}$: dp or $\frac{vv\dot{t}\dot{t}}{2r}$: : $2rf : vv = \frac{2arf}{g}$. And $cc = 2ar$.

4. The velocity generated (or deſtroyed) is as the force × time; therefore, $g \times 1$ (force × time) : $2a$ (velocity) : : $R\dot{t} : -\dot{v} = \frac{2aR\dot{t}}{g} = \frac{2aR\dot{z}}{gv}$, and $-v\dot{v} = \frac{2aR\dot{z}}{g}$.

5. The reſiſtance is as the ſquare of the velocity, whence 1^2 (vel.^{2}) : 1 (reſiſtance) : : $vv : R = vv$. Therefore $-v\dot{v} = \frac{2aR\dot{z}}{g} = \frac{2avv\dot{z}}{g}$. And $-\frac{\dot{v}}{v} = \frac{2a\dot{z}}{g}$, whence $-\log : v = \frac{2az}{g}$, and corrected, $\log : \frac{c}{v} = \frac{2az}{g}$.

Again, ſince $\frac{2arf}{g} = vv$, $\frac{ar\dot{f}}{g} = v\dot{v} = -\frac{2avv\dot{z}}{g}$, and $\dot{f} = -\frac{2vv\dot{z}}{r} = -\frac{4arf\dot{z}}{gr}$, and $-\frac{\dot{f}}{f} = \frac{4a\dot{z}}{g}$, and $-\log : f = \frac{4az}{g}$, and corrected, $\log : \frac{g}{f} = \frac{4az}{g}$.

Alſo $\dot{t} = \frac{\dot{z}}{v} = \frac{-g\dot{v}}{2avv}$, and $t = \frac{g}{2av}$, and corrected $t = \frac{g}{2av} - \frac{g}{2ac}$.

Cor. 1. *Hence v = number belonging to the logarithm* : $log : c - \frac{2az}{g}$. *And f = number belonging to the logarithm* : $log : g - \frac{4az}{g}$. Fig. 24.

Cor. 2. *Therefore the logarithms of v and f, each of them ſeverally decreaſes equally, in deſcribing equal ſpaces, ad infinitum. And therefore at every revolution, the log : of v is equally diminiſhed, and likewiſe that of f. But the body will revolve for ever, for when v is* 0, *t will be infinite.*

Cor. 3. *Hence if the central body at* C, *was ſo diminiſhed that its log : may decreaſe equally in deſcribing equal ſpaces, or in each revolution, after the manner as before-mentioned; then the body will perpetually revolve in a circle, in a medium of uniform denſity.*

Fig.

SECT. III.

The motion of three bodies acting upon one another; the perturbuting forces of a third body. The motion of bodies round an axis at reſt, or having a progreſſive motion, and other things of the ſame nature.

PROP. XXVI.

25. *If a body be projected from* A, *in a given direction* AD, *and be attracted to two fixed centers* S, T, *not in the ſame plane with* AD; *the revolving triangle* SAT, *drawn thro' the moving body, ſhall deſcribe equal ſolids in equal times, about the line* ST.

Divide the time into infinitely ſmall equal parts; it is plain that equal right lines AB, BC, CD, &c. would be deſcribed in theſe equal times; and conſequently that all the ſolid pyramids STAB, STBC, STCD, &c. are equal, which would be deſcribed in the ſame equal times; if the moving body was not acted on by the forces S and T.

But let the forces at S and T, act at the end of the ſeveral intervals of time; as ſuppoſe the force T to act at B in direction BT; ſo that the body, inſtead of being at C, is drawn from the line BC, in the direction CF, parallel to BT. And in like manner it is drawn from the line BC, by the force S, in direction CE parallel to SB. And therefore, by the joint forces, the body at the end of the time, muſt be ſomewhere in the plane ECF parallel to

SBT, as at I. But (Geom. VI. 17.) the ſolid pyramids STBI and STBC, are equal; being contained between the parallel planes ECF and SBT, and therefore have equal hights; whence STBI = pyramid STAB. Fig. 25.

In like manner continue BI, making IK = BI; and in the next part of time, the body would arrive at K, deſcribing the pyramid STIK equal to STBI. But being drawn from the line IK, by the forces S, T, in the directions KL, KN, parallel to IS, IT; the body will be found at the end of the time, ſomewhere in the plane LKN parallel to SIT, as ſuppoſe at O, and then it will have deſcribed the ſolid STIO = STIK = STBI = pyramid STAB.

And in the ſame manner producing IO to P, till OP = OI. Then the body, attracted from O, by the forces S, T, will deſcribe another equal pyramid. And ſo it will continue to deſcribe equal pyramids in equal times; and conſequently the whole ſolids deſcribed are proportional to the times of deſcription.

Cor. 1. *When the number of lineolæ* AB, BI, IO, *&c. is increaſed, and their magnitude diminiſhed, ad infinitum; the orbit* ABIO, *becomes a curve.*

Cor. 2. *Any line* AB *is a tangent at* A, BI *at* B, *&c.* A, B, *&c. being any points in the orbit.*

Cor. 3. *But the orbit* ABIO *is not contained in one plane, except in ſome particular caſes.*

For that the orbit may not deviate from a plane; the forces on both ſides thereof, ought to be alike.

PROP.

Fig.

PROP. XXVII.

26. *If the body* T *revolves in the orbit* TH, *about the body* S *at a great diſtance, whilſt a leſſer body* P *revolves about* T *very near; and if* C *be the centripetal force of* S *acting upon* T. *Then the diſturbing force of* S *upon* P *is* $= \frac{3PK}{ST}C$. *Suppoſing* PK *parallel, and* KT *perp. to* ST. *And* $\frac{PT}{ST}C =$ *the increaſe of centripetal force from* P *towards* T.

Let ST $= r$, PT $= a$, PK $= y$, $g =$ force of gravity, $b =$ ſpace deſcended thereby in time 1. $s =$ the ſpace deſcended in the time 1, by the force C. $p =$ periodic time of T about S, and $t =$ per. time of P about T. $\gamma =$ centripetal force of T at P, $\pi = 3.1416$.

Since attraction is reciprocally as the ſquare of the diſtance, then force of S acting at T : force of S acting at P $:: \frac{1}{ST^2} : \frac{1}{SP^2} :: \frac{1}{rr} : \frac{1}{\overline{r-y}^2} :: r :$ $r + 2y$, nearly. And force of S acting at T : to difference of the forces $:: r : 2y$; that is, $r : 2y ::$ $C : \frac{2y}{r}C =$ difference of the forces; and this is the ſingle force by which P is drawn from the orbit QAZ in direction KP or PS.

But ſince the motion will be the ſame, whether the ſingle force PS act in the direction PS; or the two forces PT, TS act in the directions PT, TS; ſubſtitute theſe two for that ſingle one; therefore proceeding as before, the force of S acting at T : force of S acting at P $:: \frac{1}{rr} : \frac{1}{\overline{r-y}^2}$. And force

of

Fig. 26.

of S acting at P in direction PS : force of S acting on P in direction of TS : : PS : TS : : $r - y$: r : : $\frac{1}{r}$: $\frac{1}{r-y}$. Therefore *ex æquo*, force of S acting at T : force of S acting on P in direction TS : : $\frac{1}{r^3}$: $\frac{1}{\overline{r-y}^3}$: : $\frac{1}{r^3}$: $\frac{1}{r^3 - 3r^2y}$: : $\frac{1}{r}$: $\frac{1}{r-3y}$: : r : $r + 3y$, nearly. And the force at T : difference of the forces : : $r : 3y$; or $r : 3y$: : C : $\frac{3y}{r}$C = diſturbing force of P, acting in direction parallel to TS. And PK (y) : PT (a) : : increaſe of the diſturbing force in direction PK $\left(\frac{y}{r}C\right)$: $\frac{a}{r}$C, the addition of the centripetal force in direction PT. For when the diſturbing force was $\frac{2y}{r}$C, there was no addition of centripetal force at T, but a diminution thereof ; as appears by the following Corol.

Cor. 1. *The ſimple diſturbing force, whereby* P *is drawn towards* S, *is* = $\frac{2y}{r}$C. *And the diminution of centripetal force of* P *towards* T, *is* = $\frac{v}{r}$C. *And the accelerating force at* P *in the arch* PA, *is* = $\frac{z}{r}$C. *Putting* z = *ſine of* 2PQ, v = *verſed ſine of* 2PQ.

For let x = TK, and draw KI perp. to PT ; then by ſimilar triangles, PT (a) : PK (y) : : PK : PI : : force PK $\left(\frac{2y}{r}C\right)$: force in direction IP or TP = $\frac{2yv}{ar}$C = $\frac{v}{r}$C.

Alſo PT (a) : TK (x) : : PK : KI : : force PK

Fig. 26. $\left(\frac{2y}{r}C\right)$: force in direction KI or PA $= \frac{2xy}{ar}C = \frac{z}{r}C$. By Trigon. B. I. Prop. II. Schol.

Cor. 2. *The diſturbing force at* P *is* $= \frac{q}{59\frac{1}{2}}\gamma$, *q being the ſine of the diſtance from the quadrature,* P *the moon,* S *the ſun.*

For (Prop. V.) $C = \frac{ttr}{ppa}\gamma$, and $\frac{3y}{r}C = \frac{3tty}{ppa}\gamma = \frac{3q\gamma}{178\frac{3}{4}}$ (becauſe $\frac{y}{a} = \frac{q}{1}$) $= \frac{q}{59\frac{1}{2}}\gamma$ nearly.

Cor. 3. *If* S *be the ſun,* P *a body in the equinoctial of the earth; the diſturbing force at* P *is* $= \frac{qg}{12852000}$.

For when P is at the moon's orbit, the force is $\frac{q}{59\frac{1}{2}}\gamma$; but $g = 60 \times 60\gamma$, or $\gamma = \frac{1}{3600}g$, therefore the force becomes $\frac{qg}{59\frac{1}{2} \times 3600}$, and at the earth is $\frac{qg}{59\frac{1}{2} \times 60^3}$.

Cor. 4. *If* S *be the moon,* P *a body on the equinoctial of the earth. The diſturbing force at* P *is* $= \frac{qg}{2880000}$.

For the general perturbating force was $\frac{3y}{r}$ C, and here C muſt be the centripetal force at the moon. Now the centripetal force of the earth, at the diſtance of the moon is $\frac{1}{60^2}g$. And the moon being 40 times leſs than the earth, the centripetal force

of the moon, at the ſame diſtance, is $\frac{1}{40\times60^2}g$; Fig. 26.
put this for C, then the force of the moon upon the equinoctial, is $\frac{3y}{r}\times\frac{g}{40\times60^2}=\frac{3yg}{60a\times40\times60^2}$
$=\frac{yg}{20\times40\times60^2}$.

Cor. 5. *The diſturbing force of the ſun, to that of the moon, upon the equinoctial; is as* 1 *to* 4.46.

For theſe forces are as $\frac{1}{12852000}$ and $\frac{1}{2880000}$ or as 288 to 1285, or as 1 to 4.46.

Cor. 6. *If f be the apparent diameter, and d the denſity of the perturbating body. Then the diſturbing force will always be as df^3y.*

For that force is $\frac{3y}{r}$C or as $\frac{yC}{r}$. Let its diameter, $= b$, M = its quantity of matter. Then C is as $\frac{M}{rr}$; that is, as $\frac{db^3}{rr}$. Therefore the diſturbing force is as $\frac{db^3y}{r^3}$, or as $dy\times f^3$.

Cor. 7. *If* P *be a point in the equator of the earth,* S *the ſun.*
The centrifugal force of P :
is to the perturbating force PT : :
As the ſquare of the earth's periodical time about the ſun pp :
to the ſquare of the earth's periodical time about its axis tt.

Let t = time of revolution of the earth round its axis; then t : $2\pi a$ (circumference) : : 1'' : $\frac{2\pi a}{t}$ = arch deſcribed in one ſecond; and the verſ-

Fig. 26. ed ſine $= \frac{4\pi\pi aa}{tt \times 2a} = \frac{2\pi\pi a}{tt} =$ aſcent or deſcent by the earth's centrifugal force. But forces are as their effects, whence $b : g :: \frac{2\pi\pi a}{tt}$ (aſcent) : $\frac{2\pi\pi ag}{ttb}$ the centrifugal force itſelf. But the perturbating force is $\frac{a}{r}C = \frac{asg}{rb}$. Whence the centrif. force : perturbating force $:: \frac{2\pi\pi ag}{ttb} : \frac{asg}{rb} :: \frac{2\pi\pi}{tt} : \frac{s}{r} :: 2\pi\pi r : tts :: \frac{2\pi\pi r}{s} : tt$. But $\frac{2\pi\pi r}{s} = pp$. For $\sqrt{2rs} : 1'' :: 2\pi r : p = \frac{2\pi r}{\sqrt{2rs}}$, and $pp = \frac{4\pi\pi rr}{2rs} = \frac{2\pi\pi r}{s}$.

Cor. 8. *Hence the body* P *is accelerated from the quadratures* Q, Z, *to the ſiziges* A, B; *and retarded from the ſiziges to the quadratures. And moves faſter, and deſcribes a greater area, in the ſiziges than in the quadratures.*

PROP. XXVIII.

The ſame things ſuppoſed as in the laſt Prop. the linear error generated in P *in any time, is as the diſturbing force and ſquare of the time. And the angular error, ſeen from* T, *will be as the force and ſquare of the time directly, and the diſtance* TP *reciprocally.*

For the motion generated in a given part of time, by any force, will be as that force; and in any other time as the force and the ſquare of the time. The motion ſo generated is the linear error of P, as it is carried out of its proper orbit, by the force $\frac{3y}{r}C$. And that error, as ſeen from T, is as the angle it is ſeen under; and therefore is as that linear error, divided by the diſtance TP; and therefore is as the force and ſquare of the time, divided by the diſtance. Fig. 26.

Cor. 1. *The linear error generated in one revolution of* P, *is as the diſturbing force and ſquare of the periodical time,* $\frac{3ca}{r}tt$. *And the angular error in one revolution is as the force and ſquare of the periodic time divided by the diſtance.*

Cor. 2. *The mean linear error of* P *in any given time, will be as the force and periodical time,* $\frac{a}{r}Ct$. *And the mean angular one, as the force and periodical time, divided by the diſtance.*

For let the given time be 1; then t (time) : $\frac{aC}{r}tt$ (whole error) : : 1 : $\frac{aCt}{r}$, the error in the given time.

Cor. 3. *The mean lineal error in any given time, is as* TP *and the periodical time of* P *directly, and the ſquare of the periodical time of* T *reciprocally. And the mean angular error, as the periodical time of* P *directly, and the ſquare of the periodical time of* T *reciprocally.*

For (Prop. V.) C is as $\frac{r}{pp}$, and $\frac{at}{r}$ C is as $\frac{at}{r} \times \frac{r}{pp}$ or $\frac{at}{pp}$. And the angular error as $\frac{t}{pp}$.

Cor. 4. *In any given time, the lineal error is as* TP *and the periodical time of* P *directly, and the cube of* ST *reciprocally. And the angular error as the periodical time of* P *directly, and the cube of* ST *reciprocally.*

Fig. 26. For (Prop. XVII.) *pp* is as r^3, therefore $\frac{at}{pp}$ is as $\frac{at}{r^3}$.

Cor. 5. *The linear error in a given time is as* $\frac{a^{\frac{5}{2}}}{r}$C, *and the angular error as* $\frac{a^{\frac{3}{2}}}{r}$C.

For *t* is as a^{3}, and $\frac{at}{r}$C *as* $\frac{a^{\frac{5}{2}}}{r}$ C.

Cor. 6. *And univerſally, the angular errors in the whole revolution of any ſatellites; are as the ſquares of the periodic times of the ſatellites directly, and the ſquares of the periodic times of their primary planets reciprocally. And the mean angular errors are as the periodical times of the ſatellites, divided by the ſquares of the periodic times of their primary planets.*

For by Cor. 1. the angular error is as the force and ſquare of the time divided by the diſtance; that is, as $\frac{Ca}{r} \times \frac{tt}{a}$; that is, (becauſe C is as $\frac{r}{pp}$) as $\frac{tt}{pp}$. The reſt is proved in Cor. 3.

PROP. XXIX.

27. *If a ſpheroid* AB *revolves about an axis* ST *in free ſpace, which axis is in an oblique ſituation to the ſpheroid; the ſpheroid will, by the centrifugal force, be moved by degrees into a right poſition ab; and afterwards by its libration, into the oblique poſition* $\alpha\beta$. *And then will return back into the poſitions ab*, AB; *and ſo vibrate for ever.*

Let C be the center of the ſpheroid; D the center of gravity of the end ICLB; E that of the end ICLA; D*d*, E*e* perp. to ST. Then the centrifugal force of the end CB, ſuppoſing it to act wholly at D, in direction *d*D, having nothing to oppoſe it, will move the end CB from B towards *b*, with a force which is as C*d*. And at the ſame time, the centrifugal force of the end CA, acting in direction *e*E, will move the end CA from A towards *a*, conſpiring with the motion of the end CB; by which means it will by degrees come into the poſition *ab*. And then by the motion acquired, it will come into the poſition $\alpha\,\beta$, making the angle SCα = SCB. And the motion being then deſtroyed, it will return back, by the like centrifugal forces, acting the contrary way; and be brought again into the poſitions *ab*, and AB; and continue to vibrate thus perpetually. Fig. 27.

Cor. *Hence if the axis of the earth is not preciſely the ſame as the axis of its diurnal rotation; the earth will have ſuch a libration as is here deſcribed, but exceeding ſmall. This is ſuppoſing it a ſolid body; but if it was a fluid, it would by the centrifugal force, form itſelf into an oblate ſpheroid.*

P R O P. XXX. *Prob.*

If a globe APBQ *in free ſpace, revolve about the axis* SCT, *in direction* ADB; *and if any force applied at* V, *the end of the radius* CV, *acts by a ſingle impulſe in direction* VG *perp. to* CV, *in the plane* VCD. *To find the axis about which the globe ſhall afterwards revolve.* 28.

Suppoſe the great circle VBQA perp. to the line of direction VG; and if VH, VI be 90 degrees; it is plain, if the firſt motion was to ceaſe; the globe by the impulſe at V, would revolve round the axis IH, which by the firſt motion was round the axis PQ. Therefore by both motions together it will move round neither of them. Now

ſince

Fig. 28. ſince a point of the ſurface moving with the greateſt velocity about ST, will move along the great circle ADB; and a point having the greateſt velocity about IH, moves along the great circle VDE. Therefore a point that will have the greateſt velocity, by the compound motion, will alſo be in a great circle paſſing thro' D. Therefore in the great circles DB, DE, take two very ſmall lines Dr, Do, in the ſame ratio as the velocities in AD, and VD; and compleat the parallelogram Dopr. Then thro' D and p draw a great circle KDpL; and a point having the greateſt motion, ariſing from a compoſition of the other two motions, will move along KDpL. Therefore finding F, R the poles of the circle KDpL, FR will be the new axis of revolution, or the axis ſought. And the velocity about the axis FR will be proportional to Dp; VBQA being always ſuppoſed perp. to GV, or to the plane DVC.

Note, if you ſuppoſe an equal force applied at E, in direction contrary to GV, it will by that means keep the center C of the globe unmoved, and will likewiſe generate twice the motion in the globe.

Cor. 1. *The greater the force is that is applied to* V, *the greater the diſtance* PF *is, to which the pole is removed. And if ſeveral impulſes be made ſucceſſively at* V, *when* V *is in the circle* APB, *the pole* F *will be moved further and further towards* H, *in the circle* APB.

For ſeveral ſmall forces or impulſes have the ſame effect as a ſingle one equal to them all.

29. Cor. 2. *If the force act at* P, *in direction perp. to the plane* CPB; *and* Dr, Do *be as the velocities along* DB *and* DQ. *The great circle* KDL *(paſſing thro'* D *and p) is the path of the point* D; *and its pole* F; *or axis of revolution* RF; *the pole being tranſlated*

from P *to* F. *And if the impulſe be exceeding ſmall,* PF *will alſo be exceeding ſmall.* Fig. 29.

Cor. 3. *If the force at* P *always acts in parallel directions, whilſt the globe turns round. The pole will make a revolution in a ſmall circle upon the ſurface of the globe, in the time of the globe's rotation, and the contrary way to the globe's motion.*

For let a ſingle impulſe at P tranſlate the pole to F; and afterwards when the globe has made half a revolution, and the point P is come to *p*; then if a new impulſe be made at F, the pole will be tranſlated to *p* which is now P; that is, it will be moved back to its firſt place on the globe. So that in any two oppoſite points of rotation, the place of the pole is moved contrary ways, and ſo is carried back again the ſame diſtance. And ſince the globe revolves uniformly, if the force act uniformly, it will move the pole all manner of ways, or in all manner of directions upon its ſurface; that is, it will deſcribe a circle, which will end where it begun. And in deſcribing this polar circle, the motion will be contrary to the motion of the globe; for ſuppoſe PFB an immovable plane. If the globe ſtood ſtill, the pole would move in a great circle, in the plane PFB. But ſince all the points of the globe which come ſucceſſively to the plane PB, are not yet arrived at it, but are ſo much further ſhort of it, as PF is greater; 'tis evident all theſe points will lie on this ſide the plane PB. And as any fixed point will deſcribe a circle on the moving globe, contrary to the motion of the globe; ſo will a point that is not fixed, but moving in the plane PFB, likewiſe deſcribe a circle (or ſome curve) contrary to the motion of the globe. Or ſhorter thus, ſuppoſe the globe to ſtand ſtill, and the direction of the force to move backward, then the relative motion will be the ſame as before; and then

Fig. 29. then the pole F will move backward too, as it will follow the force, being at right angles to it.

Cor. 4. *Since the pole by one impulſe is tranſlated to* F; *the new pole* F *is therefore another point of the material globe, diſtinct from* P. *And the particle* P *that was before at reſt, will now revolve about the particle* F *at reſt.*

For the new pole F is that particle of the globe which happened to be revolving in F, when the impulſe was made at P. The matter of the great circle ADB does not come into the circle KDL, but only the point D of it. For when the force is impreſſed, the other particles M, N, by the compound motion, will be made to revolve in the directions M*m*, N*n*, parallel to D*p*; and therefore will deſcribe leſſer circles about F; whilſt only D deſcribes the great circle KDL.

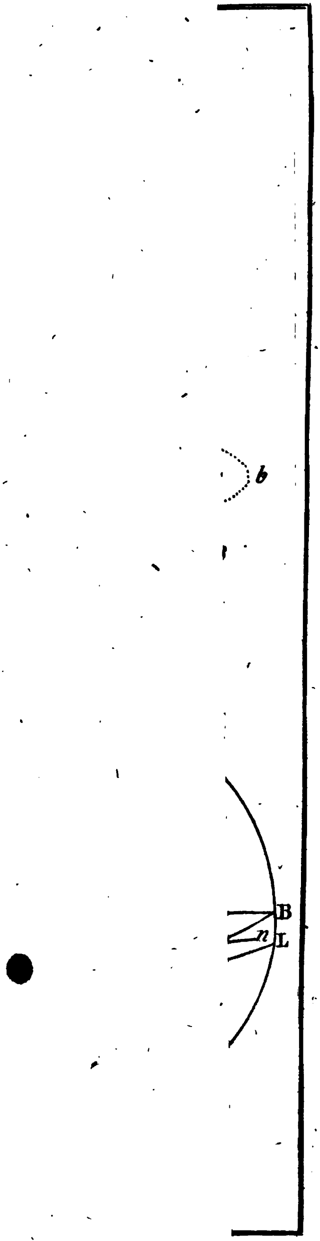
Cor. 5. *What is demonſtrated of a ſphere is true alſo of an oblate ſpheroid, whoſe axis is* PQ; *and the force impreſſed at* P, *acting in direction perp. to* CPB, *or parallel to* CD *the radius.*

Cor. 6. *But if the force at* P *act in direction contrary to the foregoing* (*as in caſe of an oblong ſpheroid*); *the pole of rotation will be moved from* P *towards* A, *contrary to the way of the other motion.*

Cor. 7. *And in general the pole* P *will always be moved in a direction perp. to that of the power*; *and towards the ſame way as the ſpheroid revolves.*

Cor. 8. *Hence after every half rotation of the globe round its axis, the places upon the globe change their latitude a little*; *which, after an entire rotation return to the ſame quantity. But this variation is ſo trifling, as to come under no obſervation.*

This is evident, becauſe the pole is altered; and



a. 58.

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of conſequence, the diſtance therefrom is altered in all places, except in the great circle FCR. Fig. 29.

PROP. XXXI. *Prob.*

Let AB *be an oblate ſpheroid, whoſe axis is* PC; *and let it revolve round that axis, in the order* ADB, *which is its' equinoctial; and if any force act at* P, *in direction* PG *perp. to* PC, *and in the plane* P ⊙ C, *which moves ſlowly about, in the order* ADB. *To find the motion generated in the ſpheroid.* 30.

Let EL be an immovable plane like the ecliptic, in which the center C of the ſpheroid always remains. ON another plane parallel to it. Erect CM perp. to theſe planes; and make the angle MCN = the angle B♎C, in which the equinoctial B♎ cuts the ecliptic CL. Suppoſe the ſpherical ſurface OVN to be drawn, whoſe pole is M; and produce CP to cut it at R, in the circle ORN. Then PCD and RCM are in one plane, and both of them perp. to P♎ and P♈C. Now to find the motion of the axis of the ſpheroid. Here OVN is the upper ſide of the ſurface.

This Prop. differs from the laſt in ſeveral reſpects. The laſt Prop. regards only the motion of the pole upon the ſurface of the globe, and that is cauſed by a motion which is generated in the globe itſelf. But in this Prop. we conſider the motion of the axis CR in the fixed ſpherical ſurface OVN; which always proceeds in one direction, as long as the moving force keeps its poſition. In the laſt Prop. the motion of the globe round its axis is performed in a very ſhort time; but here the revolution of the force, in the moving plane P ⊙ C, is a long time in its period.

Now by the laſt Prop. Cor. 7. the force PG will always move the axis of rotation CPR in a direc-

Fig. 30. tion perp. to PG. Therefore ſuppoſe the plane P⊙C to revolve ſlowly round PC, and we ſhall find that in the beginning of the motion, when ⊙ or F is at ♎, then the plane (P⊙C or) P♎C will be perp. to the plane CRM, and at that time the motion of R will be directed from R towards M. And when that plane comes to the poſition PF⊙C, the motion of R will be directed to ſome place between N and V. And when it is got to the tropic D, then R's motion is directed along the circumference RV; for then P⊙C coincides with CRM. But when P⊙C arrives at *f*, the motion will be directed from R to ſome point *t* without the circle. And laſtly, when P⊙C is at the other interſection ♈, beyond B; the motion of R will be directed to *m* oppoſite to M. The reſult of all which is, that the pole R will deſcribe ſuch a curve as R1234; and then the ſame force begins again at ♎; which being repeated, another ſimilar figure 456 is deſcribed by R; and ſo on for more. The ſame force I ſay is repeated, for when the plane P⊙C comes on the other ſide of the globe, the force acts the contrary way, and therefore 'tis all one as if it acted on the firſt ſide of the globe.

It muſt be obſerved, that as R moves thro' 1234, the interſection ♎ gradually moves towards E. And as to the force PG, it may be ſuppoſed variable, at different poſitions of the plane P⊙C. And according to the quantity of force in the ſeveral places, different curves (1234) will be deſcribed.

Cor. 1. *Hence it is evident, that the inclination of the planes* ADB *and* ECL, *is greateſt when* P⊙C *paſſes thro'* ♎ *and* ♈. *And leaſt when it paſſes thro' the tropic* D. *And that the inclination decreaſes from the node* ♎ *to the tropic* D, *and increaſes from the tropic to the node.*

For when P⊙C is in ♎, R is fartheſt from M; Fig. but when it is in D, R is at 2, and its direction 30. is parallel to R4, and then 2M is leaſt.

Cor. 2. *After a revolution of the plane* PF⊙C *(in which the force always acts), the inclination comes to the very ſame it was at firſt.*

For at any two points F, *f*, equidiſtant on each ſide from the tropic; the force is directed contrary ways, from and to the circle RV; and therefore the motion, in the curve R1234, being alſo equal and contrary, from and towards RV, they mutually deſtroy one another; and therefore after a revolution, or rather half a revolution, the pole R is brought back to the circle RV, and then the angle RCM is the ſame it was at firſt.

Cor. 3. *The motion of the pole* R, *reckoned in the circle* OVN, *is always from* R *towards* V, *then thro'* N, O, *and* R.

For tho' the motion of R towards and from M, in the line M*m*, in one revolution, is equal both ways; and ſo R is always brought to the circle again; yet the motion conſidered along the circle is always in the order RVN. Thus it goes thro' the curve 123 to 4, ſo that after half a revolution of P⊙C, it is advanced forward in the circle RV, the length R4.

Cor. 4. *The motion along the circle is ſometimes faſter and ſometimes ſlower. At* 2 *it moves faſteſt of all; at* R *and* 4, *it moves ſloweſt, or rather is ſtationary for a moment.*

Cor. 5. *The pole* R, *and the nodes move the contrary way about, to what* AB *revolves.*

Cor. 6. *If the force* PG *ſtands ſtill, the pole* R *will ſtill move backwards as before; and that in a*

right

Fig. 30. *right line, or rather, a great circle. And if* PG *moves backward thro'* BDFA; *the pole* R *will ſtill go backward; but then the curve* R24, *will be concave towards* M, *like* 87R, *being contrary to the other where the force moved forward.*

Cor. 7. *But in an oblong ſpheroid, where the force acts in direction* GP, *quite contrary to the other;* R *will deſcribe the curve* R78, *without the circle* ORV; *every particle of it in a contrary direction to theſe of* R24. *And therefore the pole* R, *and the nodes* ♈ *and* ♎ *will move the ſame way about as* ADB *revolves, and contrary to what they do in an oblate ſpheroid.*

For the force being directed the contrary way; of conſequence the motion muſt be ſo too.

Cor. 8. *And in an oblong ſpheroid, if the force* GP *move the contrary way about; yet the pole* R *will ſtill move forward. And the curve deſcribed by* R, *will have its convexity the contrary way.*

Cor. 9. *Hence if the quantities and proportions of theſe forces, in different places be known; it will not be difficult to delineate the curve* R1234, *upon the ſpherical ſurface* OVNM.

PROP. XXXII. *Prob.*

31. *If a planet (or the moon) move in the orbit* ATE*t*, *round an immovable center* C, *whoſe plane is inclined to the plane of the ecliptic* AQE; *and a force acts upon it in lines perp. to* GZ, *and parallel to the ecliptic, directed always from the plane* GZ *to either ſide. To find the motion of the nodes* A, E; *and the variation of the orbit's inclination* PAO.

Let ATZE be half the orbit raiſed above the ecliptic AQ, AE the line of the nodes; T, *t*, the

Fig. 31. the tropics. Draw CM perp, to the ecliptic AQE, and CR perp. to the orbit ATE. Round M as a pole deſcribe a ſpherical ſurface RVNX; then RC will be the axis of the orbit, and MC of the ecliptic, or circle AQE. Thro' the points T, C, M, draw the plane RMC; and thro' A, C, M, another plane cutting the circle RNF in X and H; then RF is perp. XH, and the circle RNX parallel to GEQ. Note, RNX is the upper ſide of the ſurface.

Let the planet be at P, and let P2 be the ſpace it deſcribes in any ſmall time, and the line P1 the ſpace it would be drawn thro' in the ſame time, by the force acting from the plane MGZ. Compleat the parallelogram P123, and P3 will be its direction by the compound force. Now as the line P1 is parallel to the ecliptic, 'tis plain the point 3 will be below the plane of the orbit; and the plane CP2 will be moved into the poſition CP3, revolving about CP; conſequently the axis RC will be moved in a direction perp. to CP. And the pole R will be moved to ſome point between F and H. This being duly attended to, the motion of the pole R will be known for all the places of P in the orbit GATZ. For about G the motion of R is directed perp. to M*n*; at A it moves perp. to MX, or in direction RM. At T it moves parallel to MH, or in the curve RV. Approaching to Z, it moves perp. from M*n*. So that in the paſſage of the planet P, from G to Z, thro' GAPTZ; the pole R of its orbit, moves thro' the curve R1234. But in the other half of the orbit ZE*t*G, as the force is directed the contrary way from the plane GZMN, the pole R will return back at 4, and deſcribe a ſimilar curve 45678. So that when the planet P has made one revolution, the pole of its orbit R will be found at 8. But in this poſition of the nodes, the point 8 will be within the ſphe-

rical

Fig. 31. rical ſurface RHNX, not reaching the periphery RV. For the ſeveral parts of the curve being deſcribed in all directions in reſpect of the line *n*N; the points R, 4, will be equidiſtant from *n*N, and likewiſe 4, 8, for the ſame reaſon.

Now ſuppoſe the force and the plane GZN*n* to to revolve about the axis CM in the order GATE. Then after it is come to ſuch a poſition, that the aſcending node A is as far on the other ſide of G, ſuppoſe at *a*; then the pole R will be as far on the other ſide of V, ſuppoſe at *r*; and being alſo as far from N*n*, on the ſame ſide; the curves (12468) will approach VH there, by the ſame degrees as they receded from it at RV. And therefore the pole R will by degrees be brought to the circle again. Thus in every two correſpondent points on each ſide V, the forces and their effects balance one another, and R will be at the ſame diſtance from the circle RVH. And therefore after half a revolution of the plane GZ to the nodes, the angle RCM, and conſequently the inclination of the orbit, comes to the ſame as at firſt. And likewiſe as the pole R moves forward or backward in the circle RVH; the motion of the nodes A, E, will be forward or backward.

Cor. 1. *In this poſition of the nodes at* A *and* E, *the inclination of the orbit* ATE *will be diminiſhed every revolution of* P. *But on the oppoſite ſide at a, the inclination increaſes every revolution of* P.

For the points 4, 8, come nearer and nearer to M, and the contrary at *r*.

Cor 2. *When the nodes are at* A, E; *the inclination decreaſes; when the planet is in* GT *or* Z*t*; *and increaſes in* TZ *and t*G.

For R moves to 3, whilſt P moves thro' GT. At 3 it is at its neareſt diſtance to M; from 3 to

4 R recedes from M, whilſt P moves thro' TZ. Fig.
And the like on the other half of the orbit. 31.

Cor. 3. *When the planet is in* GA *and* ZE, *the nodes go forward. But in* AZ *and* EG, *they go backward.*

For whilſt R paſſes thro' R1, its motion is forward, viz. from R toward *n*, and at 1 where it moves parallel to RM, it is ſtationary; that is, when P is in A. Thro' 1234, R moves backward, or towards V; and then P is in AZ.

Cor. 4. *In general, the nodes are always regreſſive, except when* P *is between a node, and its neareſt quadrature; and then they are progreſſive, wherever the nodes are ſituated.*

Cor. 5. *The nodes go faſteſt back when the planet is in* T *and t.*

For then R is at 3 and 7.

Cor. 6. *The inclination varies moſt, when* P *is at* A *and* E.

For then R is at 1 and 5.

Cor. 7. *And from the various ſituation of the nodes, and the place of* P, *it may eaſily be determined, when the inclination increaſes or decreaſes, in any caſe.*

Cor. 8. *Hence if the quantities of theſe forces were known, it would not be difficult to delineate the motion of the pole* R, *upon the ſpherical ſurface* RXFH; *and at any time to find the inclination, and place of the node.*

Cor. 9. *And to find the nature of the curve* R1234 *deſcribed by the pole* R. *Suppoſing the force directed always to the ſun; and to be as the diſtance of* P *from the plane* GZ.

Let RDB be the curve, and let the tangent *t*DT 32.
revolve about the curve RDB, beginning at R, ſo

Fig. as the end T may move uniformly thro' all the
32. points of the compaſs, in the ſame manner as P
moves thro' its orbit ATZE*t*. It is plain this is
one property of the curve RDT.

Now ſince the ſun's rays fall at the ſame obli-
quity upon all parts of the plane ATQ, therefore
the force to draw P in a direction parallel to theſe
rays, being the ſame at equal diſtances from the
plane GZ, and always as the diſtance; therefore by
the reſolution of motion, the diſtance that P is
drawn perpendicularly from the plane of its orbit,
will alſo be as that diſtance; and that is as the va-
riation of the orbit's inclination. Therefore if P,
inſtead of moving to 2 move to 3, then the force
at P or PB (fig. 31.) will be as the angle 2P3: ſuppoſ-
33. ing the ſun's diſtance from the node to remain the
ſame, during one revolution of P.

But when the ſun or the force alters its poſition,
34. it will be greater or leſs on that account, in pro-
portion to the ſine of OL (where OL is perp. to
AL), and that is as the ſine of AO, the diſtance
from the node, the angle A being given. From
hence it follows that univerſally, the force acting
on P will be always as BP × S.AO; that is, as
S.GP × S.AO (fig. 31.); that is, as the ſine of
the diſtance of P from the quadratures, and the
ſine of the diſtance of the ſun at O from the node.

Now let us find the nature of the curve R1234,
32. ſuppoſing AO to remain the ſame for one revolu-
tion of P. Put RA $= x$, AD $= y$, RD $= z$.
Since by the generation of the curve, the angle
AD*t* = arch GP, and the force is as the ſine of
GP or of AD*t*, and $\frac{\dot{x}}{\dot{z}} =$ S.AD*t*. Alſo it is plain,
the increment of the curve at D is as that force;
therefore $\frac{\dot{x}}{\dot{z}}$ is as $\dot{z}$. And ſince in paſſing thro' the
parti-

particle of the curve $\dot{z}$, the line Dt is ſuppoſed to change its direction uniformly, therefore the angle of contact is given; whence $\dot{z}$ or $\frac{\dot{x}}{\dot{z}}$ is as the radius of curvature, or as $\frac{\dot{z}\dot{y}}{\ddot{x}}$; that is, $\frac{\dot{x}}{\dot{z}}$ is as $\frac{\dot{z}\dot{y}}{\ddot{x}}$, or $ax\ddot{x} = \dot{z}^2\dot{y}$ ($\dot{z}$ being given), and the fluent is $\frac{a\dot{x}^2}{2} = y\dot{z}^2$, and $\dot{x} : \dot{z} :: \sqrt{y} : \sqrt{\tfrac{1}{2}a} ::$ as the ſubtangent : to the tangent; which is the property of the cycloid, $\frac{1}{2}a$ being = CB, the diameter of the generating circle. Fig. 32.

Now at different diſtances of ⊖ from the node, the cycloid deſcribed will be greater in proportion to the ſine of AO (fig. 31.); and even in the ſame cycloid, the latter part will be greater than the former part, as AO grows greater; all the parts of it increaſing as the ſine of AO increaſes; and the greateſt cycloid will be when A is in the quadratures; and the leaſt when in the ſyziges, where it is reduced to nothing.

SCHOLIUM.

From the foregoing ſolution, theſe obſervations may be made.

1. Tho' the curve R24 has been determined to be a cycloid, yet it is nearer an epicycloid. For at R it ſets off nearly in a direction perp. to GZ, and during its generation (that is, whilſt P performs a ſemirevolution) the point A moves towards G; and ſuppoſing the force at O to be fixed, the laſt particle of the curve at 4 would be parallel to that at R. But as O really moves forward, ſome number of degrees, ſuppoſe 14, and continues to do ſo, all the ſemirevolution; therefore every particle of the curve will have other directions in its deſcription, being more curve than

before;

Fig. 32. before; and at laſt the tangents at R and 4, will make an angle of 14 deg. which is the ſame as if an epicycloid was deſcribed on the convex ſide of a circle, going thro' an arch of it equal to 14 degrees.

2. Thus the curve deſcribed by R would be nearly an epicycloid, when the force at O is every where of the ſame quantity; yet as O moves about, the force will increaſe and decreaſe in proportion to the ſine of AO; therefore, if you will ſuppoſe ſuch an epicycloid deſcribed as above-mentioned, and moreover imagine the radius of the generating circle to ſwell or increaſe, in the ſame ratio as the S.AO increaſes; then ſuch an epicycloid will nearly repreſent the curve deſcribed by R. For then every part of it will be greater or leſs, in proportion to the force that generates it. But enough of this. All that I ſhall add on this head is the ſolution of the two following problems, upon account of their curioſity, as depending on the foregoing principles.

PROP. XXXIII. *Prob.*

To find the diſturbing force of Jupiter or Saturn, upon the earth in its orbit; having that of the ſun upon the moon given.

26. Let the matter in the ſun and Jupiter be as *m* to 1. E, I, L the periodic times of the earth, Jupiter and the moon. A, B, the diſtances of the earth and Jupiter from the ſun. D the moon's diſtance from the earth. C, *c*, the centripetal forces of the ſun and Jupiter.

Then (by Prop. XXVII.) the diſturbing force of S upon P, is $\frac{3PK}{ST}C$ or as $\frac{PT}{ST}C$. Therefore if S be the ſun, and P the moon, the diſturbing force is

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is $\frac{D}{A}C$; but if S be Jupiter, P the earth, T the ſun; then the force is $\frac{A}{B}c$. That is, the ſun's diſturbing force upon the moon, is to Jupiter's diſturbing force upon the earth; as $\frac{D}{A}C$ to $\frac{A}{B}c$; or as DBC to A^2c. But (Cor. 2. VII.) $C = \frac{m}{AA}$, and $c = \frac{1}{BB}$. Therefore the ſun's force upon the moon, is to Jupiter's upon the earth; as $\frac{DBm}{AA}$ to $\frac{AA}{BB}$, or as DB^3m to A^4; that is (Prop. XVII.), as $DI^2m : AE^2$. That is, the ſun's diſturbing force upon the moon, is to Jupiter's diſturbing force upon the earth; as D × II × *m*, to A × EE. But that of the moon is known, and conſequently that of Jupiter. And if for I and *m*, we put Saturn's periodic time, and quantity of matter; Saturn's diſturbing force will be known. Fig. 26.

Cor. 1. *The angular errors generated in the moon by the ſun, are to the errors generated in the earth by Jupiter in the ſame time,* : : *as* IIL × *m*, *to* E^3.

For (Prop. XXVIII. Cor. 2.) theſe errors are as the forces and periodic times, divided by the diſtances. Therefore the ſun's effect to Jupiter's, is as $\frac{D \times II \times m \times L}{D}$ to $\frac{A \times E^2 \times E}{A}$; or as IIL*m* to E^3.

Cor. 2. *Hence the error generated in the moon by the ſun, is to the error generated in the earth by Jupiter; as* 11230 *to* 1, *and to that generated by Saturn, as* 196076 *to* 1.

For put I = 4332 ½ days, L = 27 ⅓, *m* = 1067, E = 365 ¼; then $\frac{I^2Lm}{E^3} = 11230$, And putting

Fig. 26. I = 10759 $\frac{1}{4}$, and *m* = 3021, for Saturn; then $\frac{I^2 L m}{E^3}$ = 196076.

Cor. 3. *The force of Saturn to the force of Jupiter to diſturb the earth, is as* 1 *to* 17 $\frac{1}{2}$.

Cor. 4. *The motion of the nodes of the earth's orbit by Jupiter's action, in* 100 *years, is* 10′ 20″ $\frac{1}{2}$. *And by Saturn's,* 35″ $\frac{2}{3}$.

For the motion of the moon's nodes in a year is 19° 20′ 32″, or 69632″; this divided by 11230 gives 6″.2005, multiplied by 100, is 620″.05, which increaſed in the ratio of the coſine of inclination of Jupiter's orbit (1° 19′ 10″), to that of the moon's (5° 8′ $\frac{1}{2}$), produces 10′ 22″ $\frac{1}{2}$. Which diminiſhed in the ratio of 1 to 17 $\frac{1}{2}$, gives 35″ $\frac{2}{3}$ for Saturn.

Cor. 5. *The motion of the earth's aphelion by the action of Jupiter, is* 21′ 44″ *in* 100 *years, in conſequentia. And by Saturn,* 1′ 14″ $\frac{1}{2}$.

For the motion of the moon's apogee is 40° 40′ 43″, or 146443″ in a year. This divided by 11230 gives 13.04″; which multiplied by 100, gives 1304″ or 21′ 44″. And divided by 17 $\frac{1}{2}$, gives 74″ $\frac{1}{2}$.

PROP: XXXIV. *Prob.*

35. *To find the variation of inclination of the earth's orbit, by the action of Jupiter in* 100 *years; and the like for Saturn.*

Let ♈ ♋ ♎ ♑ be the ecliptic, or plane of the earth's orbit; GFH the orbit of Jupiter; G Jupiter's aſcending node; E, I, Q, the poles of the ecliptic, Jupiter's orbit, and the equator, reſpectively; ECK a circle parallel to GF; and D*m*Q a circle parallel to the ecliptic. The pole Q here moves regularly along the circle Q/D, by the preceſſion of the equinoxes; which circle is no way affected or altered by Jupiter's action; becauſe Jupiter cannot be ſuppoſed to have any force to move the equinoctial points, or alter their regular motion. But he has a power of acting upon the whole body of the earth, and altering its orbit, and conſequently the pole E of the ecliptic; which pole is therefore made to move along the circle ECK. Therefore we muſt ſuppoſe the orbit of Jupiter fixed, and conſequently the pole I, and circle ECK. And now we have to compute the motion of E along the circle ECK. Fig. 35.

The preceſſion of the equinoxes in 100 years is — — 1° 23′ 20″
And (by the laſt prob.) the motion of Jupiter's nodes in 100 years is 10′ $22''\frac{1}{2}$ or $622''\frac{1}{2}$
Jupiter's aſcending node G (1755, angle QEG) — — ♋ 8° 20′
Inclination of Jupiter's orbit — 1° 19′ 10″.

Therefore make the angle QE*a* = $1^\circ\, 23''\frac{1}{3}$, and EIC = 10′ $22\frac{1}{2}$. Upon E*a* let fall the perp. C*o*; then E*o* is the decreaſe of EQ or E*a*, which (Prop. XXXII.) is the ſame as the decreaſe of the inclination of the planes of the ecliptic and equinoctial.

In the triangle EIC, by reaſon of the very ſmall angle EIC, we ſhall have as rad : S.IC (1° 19′ 10″) : : angle EIC ($622''\frac{1}{2}$) : EC = $\frac{\text{EIC} \times \text{S.IC}}{\text{rad}}$ = 14″.3. To the angle GEQ (8° 20′), add QE*a* ($1^\circ\, 23'\frac{1}{3}$), then *a*EG or *o*EC = $9^\circ\, 43'\frac{1}{3}$. Then in the very ſmall right lined triangle EC*o*, rad : EC : : coſ. *o*EC ($9^\circ\, 43'\frac{1}{3}$) : E*o* = $\frac{\text{EC} \times \text{coſ.}\ o\text{EC}}{\text{rad}}$ = 14″.1.

Or E*o* = $\frac{\text{EIC} \times \text{S.IC} \times \text{coſ.}\ o\text{EC}}{\text{rad}^2}$, the decreaſe of inclination of the equinoctial in 100 years by the

Fig. 35. action of Jupiter. And this decreaſe will amount to a minute in 425 years.

If the ſame computation was applied to Saturn, putting $EIC = 35'' \frac{2}{3}$, $IC = 2^\circ\ 30'\ 10''$, $oEC = (21^\circ\ 21'\ 36'' + 1^\circ\ 23' \frac{1}{3})\ 22^\circ\ 44'\ 56''$; the decreaſe by Saturn will be 1″.44. Therefore the decreaſe by both will be 15″.54; which will be a minute in 386 years.

Cor. 1. *The inclination will decreaſe till* E *and* a *be at their neareſt diſtance in the two circles, which will be above* 6000 *years; and then it will increaſe again. It has likewiſe been decreaſing for above* 8000 *years.*

For the diameters of the circles EK and DQ, being about as 1 to 17. And the angle IEQ being 81° 40′, and the difference of the motions of E and Q being 1° 13′; it will decreaſe nearly as many centuries as is the quotient of 81° 40′ divided by 1° 13′, which is 67. Alſo the ſupplement 98° 20′ divided by 1° 13′, gives 81 centuries, it has been decreaſing.

Cor. 2. *But the increaſe or decreaſe for every century is not* 15″.54, *as determined in this particular ſituation. For as it approaches to its maximum or minimum, it varies very ſlow, and at theſe places is at a ſtand for a long time.*

Cor. 3. *The inclination can never be leſs than* 20° 50′ 54″; *nor greater than* 26° 7′ 20″.

For the neareſt and greateſt diſtances of the two circles EK, DQ amount but to theſe. And there muſt be many revolutions, before they can light upon theſe two points, if the world can be ſuppoſed to exiſt ſo long.

SCHOLIUM.

The diſturbing forces of Jupiter and Saturn here made uſe of are derived from that of the ſun upon on the moon; but theſe forces are really more than Fig. 35. are here determined. For in calculating the diſturbing force of the ſun (by Prop. XXVII.), the forces upon T and p are as rr to $rr + 2ry + yy$; but by reaſon of the great diſtance of the ſun, the part yy is left out, as being extremely ſmall. But in the caſe of Jupiter and Saturn it is otherwiſe, and therefore yy muſt be taken in. Whence the diſturbing force muſt have an additional increaſe, which is as $2ry$ to yy, or as $2r$ to y, which in Jupiter is as 10 to 1, and in Saturn as 19 to 1. Therefore Jupiter's diſturbing force muſt be increaſed by $\frac{1}{10}$th, and Saturn's by $\frac{1}{19}$th; which being done, their effects will be proportional, and the decreaſe of inclination of the ecliptic in 100 years, by Jupiter and Saturn will become 15″.45, and 1″.51; and by both 16″.96 or 17″ nearly; which will mount to a minute in 353 years.

But if the obſervations of the antients can be depended on, the obliquity decreaſes faſter than this. For by the obſervations of *Ariſtarchus*, *Eratoſthenes*, *Hyparchus*, *Ptolemy*, and *Theon*, the obliquity was found to be 23° 51′. And none of them lived 300 years before Chriſt, and two of them after. So that in little more than 2000 years, there is a difference of 22′; which is more than a minute in 100 years, and is more than three times as faſt as we have here determined it.

I ſhall now proceed to ſome things of another kind, relating to centripetal forces; which as far as I can find, have not been meddled with by any body before.

PROP. XXXV. *Prob.*

If the circle GDFE *be moved along the right line* 36. AB, *whilſt it turns round its axis; to find its motion upon a horizontal plane.*

Suppoſe the circle inlined in any given angle to the horizon, the line of direction AB being at firſt

Fig. 36. in its plane; and let it move round its axis CP, which is perpendicular to its plane, with any velocity. Let O be the center of oſcillation.

Now the circle will endeavour to deſcend by its gravity, in the ſame manner, as the ſingle point O would do. Therefore ſuppoſe the point F to deſcend thro' F*f* in a moment of time, and that F is transferred to I in the ſame time. Then if the parallelogram F*fn*I be compleated, the point F by the compound motion, will move along F*n*. By this means CP, the axis of revolution, will be transferred to the poſition C*q*, inclining more towards B. But when the circle has made half a revolution, and G is come to the place F; the points in F, proceeding in the tract F*n*, will move the axis C*q* forwards, as before; that is (by the turning of the circle) it will throw it into its former place CP. So that during a revolution, the axis is thrown contrary ways in all the oppoſite points, and ſo is always reſtored back to its firſt place in regard to the plane. Therefore the circle always revolves about the axis CP, whilſt CP continually inclines more and more forward; that is, the plane of the circle continually alters its poſition; and the variation of its poſition is known from the lines FI, *n*I; and is equal to the angle *n*FI or PC*q*. And ſince the circle endeavours to move along a line which is in the plane *n*FG, it will no longer go along AB, but deviate from it into a new tract, which is now to be found.

It may be convenient to imagine the circle to be a poligon with an infinite number of ſides. Then let KL be the horizon, M*g* the plane of the the circle, *g* being a point in the right line AB; let the next point of the circle (or angle of the poligon) deſcend to the horizon, thro' the very ſmall ſpace *rt*; then in the right angled triangle *trg*, S. inclination (*tgr*) : *tr* or *n*I (which is as S. *n*FI) : : rad

rad (1) : $tg = \frac{\text{S.}n\text{FI}}{\text{S.}tgr}$. Therefore if the circle be moved thro' Gg in the ſame time, then from g (in the line AB) ſetting off $gt = \frac{\text{S.}n\text{FI}}{\text{S.inclination}}$, then t will be a point in the curve GtR, thro' which the circle will paſs. After the ſame manner it will again deviate from the laſt direction tb; and deſcribe the curve GRVWX. Fig. 36.

Generally the whirling motion round its axis, is equal to its progreſſive motion; for the friction of the plane ſoon reduces it to that. But take away the friction, and theſe two different motions may be what you will.

Cor. 1. *The curvature in any place, is reciprocally as theſe three quantities, the velocity of rotation, the progreſſive velocity, and the tangent of inclination.*

For the curvature is as the angle tGg, that is, as $\frac{tg}{\text{G}g}$ or as $\frac{\text{S.}n\text{FI}}{\text{G}g \times \text{S.inclination}}$; that is, as $\frac{n\text{I}}{\text{FI} \times \text{G}g \times \text{S.inclin.}}$; that is, as $\frac{\text{Coſ. incl.}}{\text{FI} \times \text{G}g \times \text{S.inclin.}}$ or as $\frac{1}{\text{FI} \times \text{G}g \times \text{tan. inclin.}}$. For nI is as the coſine of inclination, being the ſpace deſcribed upon the inclined plane nI.

Cor. 2. *Taking away all impediments, the circle always keeps the ſame inclination to the horizon.*

For the poſition of the plane FnI is ſuch, that the axes CP, Cq, are both parallel to it. If we ſuppoſe gravity to act by a ſingle impulſe at O, then F will move to n, and P to q. And the plane of the circle endeavouring to deſcend a little at D, and riſe at E; a new point of the circle as t, lying beyond G will inſtantly touch the plane; by which means it leaves the line AG. And ſince at

every

Fig. 36. every point of contact as G, the pole P moves (at each impulſe of gravity) in a line perp. to CG, and alſo parallel to the tangent arch at G; and the like at every new point of contact; it is plain CP is always alike inclined to the horizon. Conſequently, when gravity is continual, the circle coming continually to new points of contact, the axis CP will always revolve round at the ſame inclination, and therefore the plane of the circle will alſo have the ſame inclination to the horizon.

This might alſo be proved after the manner of the XXXth Prop. not conſidering the progreſſive motion of the circle.

All this is ſuppoſing there is no reſiſtance, friction, or other irregularity. But ſince in fact, the reſiſtance of the air continually leſſens its motion, and the ſmoothneſs of the plane it runs on, cauſes the foot or bottom of the circle to ſlide outward, which continually leſſens the inclination, and brings the axis more upright; and the more oblique the plane of the circle is, the faſter it ſlides out. Upon theſe accounts it can never deſcribe a circle, but only a ſort of ſpiral line; and the plane of the circle deſcending lower and lower, at laſt falls flat upon the horizon.

Cor. 3. *Hence a circle moving without any reſiſtance, &c. upon a horizontal plane; will deſcribe a circle upon that plane.*

For the velocity and inclination continuing the ſame; the curvature of the tract deſcribed, will be every where alike.

Cor. 4. *And to find the diameter of the circle or orbit deſcribed.*

Let t be a very ſmall part of time wherein Gg is deſcribed, v the velocity of projection per ſecond, b the ſpace deſcended by gravity in time t, s and c the ſine and coſine of the circles inclination, $f =$

16

$16\frac{1}{12}$ feet; then will cb = ſpace deſcended along the inclined plane Ff; and by the laws of motion, Fig. 36.

$$1'' : v :: t'' : Gg = tv.$$

$$\text{and } tt : b :: 1'' : f = \frac{b}{tt}.$$

Then whilſt O has moved thro' the length Gg, t or I has deſcended thro' the ſpace cb on an inclined plane parallel to Ff. But we proved $gt = \frac{nI}{s} = \frac{tr}{s} = \frac{cb}{s}$. And therefore the diameter of the orbit $= \frac{\overline{Gg}^2}{tg} = \frac{\overline{Gg}^2 \times s}{cb} = \frac{ttvvs}{cb} = \frac{vvs}{cf} = \frac{vv}{f} \times$ tan. inclination.

Cor. 5. *Alſo to find the periodic time, or time of one revolution.*

Let D = diameter of the orbit, then by Cor. laſt, $\frac{\overline{Gg}^2 \times s}{cb} = D$, and $Gg = \sqrt{\frac{cbD}{s}}$. The circumference of the orbit is $\frac{\pi \times \overline{Gg}^2 \times s}{cb}$ (putting $\pi = 3.1416$); and by uniform motion, $Gg : t :: \frac{\pi \times \overline{Gg}^2 \times s}{cb} : \frac{\pi ts \times Gg}{cb}$ the periodic time $= \frac{\pi ts}{cb} \sqrt{\frac{cbD}{s}} = \pi \sqrt{\frac{ttsD}{bc}} = \pi \sqrt{\frac{SD}{fc}}$.

Or thus,

$Gg\ (tv) : t ::$ circumference $\frac{\pi vvs}{fc}$: periodic time $= \frac{\pi vs}{fc} = \frac{\pi v}{f} \times$ tan. inclination.

PROP.

Fig.

PROP. XXXVI. *Prob.*

37. *If* DEF *be the ſurface of a right cone, whoſe axis* AE *is perpendicular to the horizon, and* DHFG *a circular plane parallel to the horizon; and if a circle ab revolves round in the periphery* DHFG, *with its axis tBt always parallel to the ſide of the cone* DE, *where it then is. To find the periodic time of ab, in the circle* DHFG.

Draw DBA perp. to DE, and BC perp. to AC. Let $\pi = 3.1416$, b = ſpace deſcended by gravity in the time t.

Then if the force of gravity be repreſented by AC, the centrifugal force at B to keep the circle *ab* in that poſition, thro' its whole revolution, will be denoted by BC. Then it will be AC (the gravity) : BC (the cent. force) : : $b : \frac{BC}{AC} b$ = ſpace deſcended towards C, by the force in direction BC = the effect of the centrifugal force. Therefore by (Prop. II.) the periodic time is $\pi t \sqrt{\frac{2BC}{\frac{BC}{AC}\times b}} = \pi t \sqrt{\frac{2AC}{b}}$.

Cor. 1. *Hence the periodic time* $= \pi t \sqrt{\frac{2BC}{b}\times}$ *tan. inclination* ABC.

For S.A : S.B : : BC : AC $= \frac{S.B}{S.A} \times BC = \frac{S.B}{coſ.B} \times BC$ = tan. B × BC; whence, the periodic time $= \pi t \sqrt{\frac{2BC}{b} \times \text{tan. ABC}}$.

Cor. 2. *Draw* BI *parallel to* DE, *and* DL *parallel to* BC; *then the periodic time* $= \frac{\pi t \times BC \times \sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{CI} \times b}$.

For AC $= \frac{BC^2}{CI}$.

Cor. 3. *Hence the curve deſcribed on the conic ſurface,* Fig. 37.
is the ſame as that deſcribed on a horizontal plane, as explained in the laſt Prop. All the difference is, that the conic ſurface hinders the circle ab from ſliding outward, which the horizontal plane cannot do; except it be ſuppoſed to be ſo rough, that the circle cannot ſlide on it.

For in Cor. 4. of the laſt Prop. v is put for the 36.
velocity of G along AB; but putting it for the velocity at C, you'll have the diameter of the orbit paſſing thro' C: that is, (fig. 37.) inſtead of 2DL
we ſhould find 2BC for the diameter D of the orbit. 37.

And by Cor. 5, the periodic time is $\pi t\sqrt{\frac{sD}{bc}}$. And in Cor. 1. of this Prop. the periodic time is $\pi t\sqrt{\frac{2BC}{b}}\times$ tan. inclination; which is equal to the former, becauſe $D = 2BC$, and $\frac{s}{c} =$ tan. of the inclination. So the curve is the ſame in both caſes.

PROP. XXXVII. *Prob.*

To explain the motion of a top, or ſuch like whirl- 38.
ing body.

Let ABC be a top whirling about in the order AEC; FDG a circle deſcribed by any point D in the ſurface, K its center of gravity, BKS the axis of the top.

If the top be upright upon the foot B; that is, if BS be perp. to the horizon, and moves ſwiftly about; it will continue upright till the motion ſlacken. But when it is going to fall, it will lean to one ſide; therefore ſuppoſe D to be the loweſt point in the circle FG; then the top endeavours by its gravity to deſcend towards D. Let the force of gravity alone move the point D thro' the ſpace Do, in a very ſmall time; during which, the rotary motion

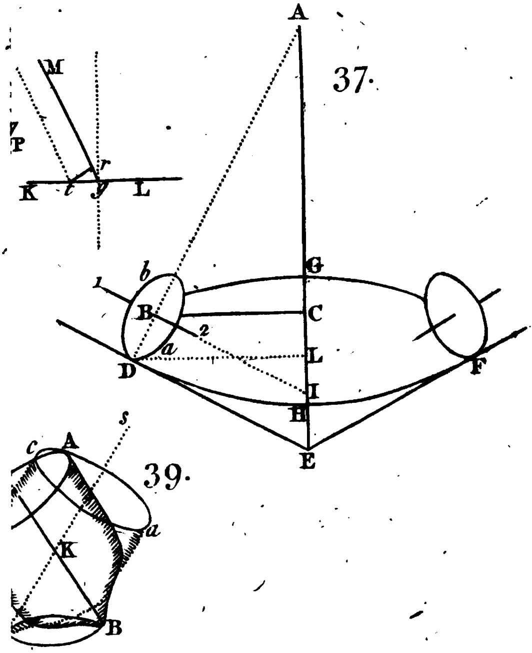
Fig. 38. motion would carry the point D to *r*. Compleat the parallelogram D*rpo*, and the point D will be carried thro' D*p*; that is, the circle FDG will come into the poſition D*p*; and therefore the axis BKS (perp. to the circle FG) will be moved in a direction towards H, perp. to DK; and the point S moved to *n*; the particle S*n* being parallel to D*p*. After the ſame manner by a new impulſe of gravity at *p*, the loweſt point; the circle FDG, will be moved into a new poſition, below D*p*, and the point S carried from *n* to *t*. And ſo by every impulſe of gravity, the point S will be moved gradually forward, thro' the circle S*ntqlz*; and thus the top recovers itſelf from falling; the motion of S being always parallel to that of D. And therefore the motion of the axis BS will be the ſame way about, as the top's motion is. And thus the point S will continue to make ſeveral revolutions by a ſlow motion, whilſt the top makes its revolutions about its axis, by a ſwift motion.

Cor. 1. *This motion of the top and its axis, is ſimilar to the motion of an oblong ſpheroid, and its nodes.*

For (Cor. 6. Prop. XXX.) the nodes move the ſame way about as the body revolves, and ſo does the axis of the top; and therefore this motion may be called the motion of the nodes of the top.

Cor. 2. *When the tops motion is very ſwift, the circle* S*ql is very ſmall; and as it grows ſlower, that circle will grow bigger and bigger, till the top falls.*

For when the top's motion is very ſwift, D*r* will be greater, and the angle *r*D*p* leſs; and the circle D*p* will deviate leſs from DG. And gravity having little power to diſturb its motion, the circle S*ql* will be extremely ſmall, and the top will revolve about the axis in appearance unmoved. But as the top's



Pl. VI. the En

top's motion by reſiſtance and friction grows leſs and leſs, Dr will be leſs; and the circle Dp will deviate more from DG; that is, gravity will have more and more power to diſturb its motion; and the axis BS will deſcribe a greater and greater circle with the point S, or rather a ſpiral, till at laſt the top falls down. Fig. 38.

Cor. 3. *As the top grows ſlow, and the motion weak, and the pole* S *deſcribes greater and greater circles, the foot* B *is thrown out to the oppoſite ſide, deſcribing a circle* Bb, *which is greater as* Sql *is greater; and goes the ſame way about.* 39.

For the center of gravity K always endeavours to be at reſt, whilſt the body revolves about. Therefore when the top grows weak, and the pole S deſcribes greater circles, the foot B is thrown further out to the oppoſite ſide; and being always oppoſite, will deſcribe a circle proportional to Sql; the foot B going the ſame way about as S does. And theſe circles Bb will continually grow greater and greater till the top falls down. Till then the top rolls about and about from the poſition CAB to the oppoſite poſition *cab*, till the motion end, and the top falls down. And theſe are the principal phœnomena of the motion of a top.

FINIS.

ERRATA

Page	Line	read
1	11	(Preface) irregularities only
59	19	P ♎ C and P ♈ C.
65	1	4, R recedes from M,
78	6	its axis 1 B2

In the Plates.

Fig. 5. *m* ſhould be ſhaded.
Fig. 23. P*n* ſhould be perp. to F*p*.

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